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ABSTRACT

The articles in this book address some of the major issues facing foreign language teachers in the next decade. These issues grow out of the concepts that received most attention in the 1970s: communicative competence, alternatives to traditional instruction, articulation of the curriculum in view of realities in U.S. foreign language departments, and expanding beyond the textbook. Specific titles and authors include: (1) "What Can I Do to Help?" (Theodore V. Higgs), (2) "The Textbook as Curriculum" (Robert Ariew), (3) "Breaking the Book Barrier" (Mary B. Flynn), (4) "The Push Toward Communication" (Theodore V. Higgs and Ray Clifford), (5) "Curricular Alternatives for Second-Language Learning" (Linda M. Crawford-Lange), and (6) "The Problem of Articulation" (Dale L. Lange). (JB)

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The ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series

Curriculum, Competence, and the Foreign Language Teacher

Edited by Theodore V. Higgs

In conjunction with the American Council
on the Teaching of
Foreign
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Foreword

In keeping with the format established with volume eleven, this volume, the thirteenth in the *ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series,* is devoted to an in-depth treatment of a single theme. It is hoped that all members of the profession—from classroom instructors to state or regional curriculum planners—will find portions of this volume relevant and immediately applicable to their daily work.

As is always the case when the editorship changes hands, the role played by the ACTFL Headquarters staff and the Advisory Committee in the preparation of this work has been vital. The members of the latter—Estella Gahala, Eileen Johansen, Dale Lange, June Phillips, Lynn Sandstedt, and Pierre Simonian—provided much needed guidance in the determination of the content of the volume, in the selection of authors, and in some cases in reviewing manuscripts. Ed Scebold's encouragement and his unfailing patience with the editor have been the major forces behind the completion of this year's volume, and the logistical support provided by Frances Lamburini during the early stages was invaluable. As the work progressed, the counsel of Michael Kiefer of National Textbook Company was especially valued. Finally, the editor is grateful beyond words to his wife, Jeannette, for her forebearance and willingness to make the sacrifices necessary to see this project through to completion.

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Introduction

What Can I Do to Help?

Theodore V. Higgs
San Diego State University

Prologue

Can the state of our profession be accurately determined at the start of this new decade? What kinds of vibrations does our self-concept give off? Isolation, alienation, and stagnation? Or fervor, commitment, and flexibility? Where are we on the great methodology mandala? What principles will lead us through the 1980s? Are we at the threshold of a boom decade such as we enjoyed during the 1960s, or at the end of our resources and near extinction? Might we not be at the brink of enormous opportunity? What can we find that offers a promise of galvanizing the entire profession? Which issues are of importance to the classroom teacher?

In fact, there is one single issue that is relevant to all of these questions and touches equally the nation's educational policy makers, the classroom teacher in a one-person department, and everybody in between. And it is an issue that will not disappear overnight.

Proficiency: The issue of the eighties

A glance at the agendas of the annual meetings of our professional organizations or at the major foreign-language journals shows that foreign-language educators have become ever more concerned about students' ability to speak and understand foreign languages. More important, this concern is expressed with a passion and intensity that is as welcome as it is overdue. The profession owes a great debt to Dell Hymes (3) and other ethnolinguists for perceiving the need for a theory of communicative competence, and to Sandra Savignon (7) for her revolutionary attempts to apply this construct to foreign-language teaching, thereby identifying some of the conceptual and procedural problems inherent in reorienting programs, methodologies, and evaluation strategies toward active and productive mastery of the target language. This concern for students' proficiency

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entails also a concern for the proficiency of the foreign language teacher. And the issue of teacher proficiency is receiving growing national attention.

Proficiency as a national concern

The proficiency issue touches all aspects of foreign-language education: the profession as a whole, in terms of major policy decisions; the individual teacher, in terms of teacher preparation and inservice programs; and the foreign-language students, in terms of the nature and quality of the instruction they receive. A number of movements are discernible that promise to identify even more clearly the nature of the proficiency problem so that a concerted nationwide effort can be directed toward proposing and implementing solutions.

In November 1980, ACTFL and Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc. cosponsored the National Conference on Professional Priorities, at which some of the nation's leading foreign-language educators presented their views on research needs, curriculum and materials development, evaluation, teacher education, and global/international education. Matters of proficiency both implicitly and explicitly occupied the thoughts of the members of these committees, and these matters are reflected in their reports and recommendations, which appear in Lange's report of the conference (4).

The College Board is currently concluding the first phase of its "Project EQuality," which has as one of its goals the development of clear statements of objectives students should meet before making the transition from secondary school to institutions of higher education. The statements, which express "preferred patterns of preparation" for the students, cover six academic areas, including foreign languages. Through a process beginning with "urban dialogues" held in Hartford, Atlanta, the District of Columbia, Chicago, Minneapolis, and Los Angeles, and culminating in the Saint Louis symposium in May 1981, the College Board has worked out statements that represent a consensus of a group of 120 educators from high schools and universities; these statements discuss the minimum competencies that transitional students should—ideally—possess. These statements are now being revised by the Academic Advisory Committee of the Board in each of the six areas and should be ready for national distribution within the next year. Such statements should greatly alleviate some of the problems of articulation discussed by Lange in Chapter Six of this volume.

Yet another evidence of the growing national concern about proficiency is the study completed by Policy Studies in Education under an ACTFL grant from the U.S. Department of Education. The report, *Ready for the Eighties?: A Look at Foreign Language Teachers and Teaching at the Start of the Decade* (5), is available from the ACTFL Materials Center; it represents the first national study of the foreign-language profession at the primary and secondary school levels ever to be undertaken. It presents the anatomy of the profession according to who its practitioners are, what their background is, what special education or experience in foreign travel/residence they have, what materials and methodologies they use and/or favor, and under what conditions they practice their art (e.g., how many daily preparations they have, what other courses they teach, what their typical class size is, and so forth).

Matters of evaluation also enter into the competence/proficiency picture. With the move away from discrete item mastery and toward the development of communication skills, new ways of testing and evaluating student performance must be developed. At the moment, perhaps the most comprehensive system for evaluating oral proficiency is that used by the Foreign Service Institute and other government agencies. One reason behind the success of the FSI evaluation system is that it combines judgments about fluency, accuracy, and social acceptability in the target language into a global proficiency rating that predicts how well a candidate will perform on particular communication tasks, with particular types of listeners, and in particular social settings. ACTFL has been awarded a grant from the Undergraduate International Studies and Foreign Language Program of the U.S. Department of Education entitled *Professional Development: Oral Proficiency Testing and Rating*. Under this grant, workshops will be organized by ACTFL and conducted by the Educational Testing Service beginning in spring 1982 for university-level personnel; at these workshops, participants will be trained in using the FSI oral testing techniques and in applying them to the university environment. It is expected that considerable restructuring and refinement of the current FSI rating scale will be needed, since the levels of performance attained by university students are normally slightly lower than levels that define minimum competence for those entering government service. Nonetheless, projects such as this one serve to underscore the need for continued growth in the profession so that our practices can keep pace with our aspirations.

The growing demand for teacher proficiency is also seen in the fact that more and more states—currently sixteen—require some sort of proficiency examination as part of their teacher licensing procedures. While such requirements do not guarantee high-quality teaching—one state requires only that candidates take the National Teacher Examinations but sets no minimum standards of performance, while another requires only that candidates score at the fifth percentile or better—they are a step in the right direction. Perhaps the most comprehensive and exacting system now in place is that recently put into effect throughout Georgia. In that state, new teachers seeking a state license must take and pass a battery of fourteen criterion-referenced competency examinations and in addition must undergo a series of evaluations of their classroom performance in order to secure "renewable" (i.e. permanent) certification.

Paradoxically, the widely reported trend toward lower enrollments in our schools may well be an important factor in raising the proficiency standards for all teachers, not just those in the foreign languages. Because school districts now enjoy a buyer's market when hiring new teachers, the quantity of the sixties can now be supplanted by quality in the eighties. The drop in student enrollment should also make it possible to eliminate "surplus teaching," in which a teacher who is not adequately prepared to teach a foreign language has been asked (or ordered) to pick up the overflow of a language course. It is never easier to raise standards than when the supply of teachers is high and the demand is low.

Toward involving the individual

It is tempting to look at the current situation and shrug it off as someone else's problem; to say, "What can I do for the profession to establish or promote national issues?" Current teaching staffs, if they so choose, can remain aloof and apart, untouched by new standards, new teacher training and inservice programs, and new criteria for certification. But the issue of proficiency (i.e., the quality of education offered to our students) is one that touches each of us every day. For those who already are active in foreign-language teaching, options are always available. We can keep up with issues of pedagogy, methodology, and philosophy by reading journals and attending conferences. We can study our textbooks with an eye toward anticipating the doubts, questions, and communication needs of our students. Most important, we can constantly and conscientiously reexamine our own perceptions and practices in the light of growing knowledge of what language is and how people seem to learn and acquire it.

In the case of the first two options, it is encouraging to note that in May, 1982, ACTFL, in collaboration with AAAL, will present a conference on the design and content of high school foreign-language texts. This meeting, funded through a grant to AAAL and ACTFL by the Johnson Foundation, involves a select group of applied linguists, foreign-language supervisors and consultants, classroom teachers, foreign-language teacher trainers, representatives of major foreign-language textbook publishers, professional organizations in the foreign-language field, and government agencies and foundations.

A conference on textbooks could not have been better timed, since nothing else so directly affects our daily teaching activities. Texts and other materials related to the total foreign-language curriculum must be constantly reevaluated as program goals change and our knowledge of psycholinguistics and learning theory expands. Today's older generation of foreign-language teachers has seen a complete swing of the pendulum, from the traditional grammar-translation method to the mim-mem, audio-lingual method. Yet another revolution, advancing under the banner of communicative competence and defended by theoretical contributions such as functional-notional syllabuses, is already at hand. These so-called revolutions, far from representing mindless infatuations with the latest *isms*, show the continual process of self-evaluation to which the profession willingly and optimistically submits itself in the endless quest for the methodology, materials, and approach that will best serve the greatest number of foreign-language students.

Much of what goes into this quest reflects the state of the art of both linguistics and learning theory. The grammar-translation method, for example, views language as being comprised of universal and mutually substitutable vocabulary items held together by language-specific grammatical devices. Language learning is then perceived as a relatively passive undertaking akin to cryptography. In contrast, the audio-lingual method marries structural linguistics and behaviorist learning theory into a pedagogical model that views language as a "complex system of habits," and treats all learning as the formation of new habits, whence come the endless—and often mindless—repetition of isolated sentences, the memorization of extended dialogues, the constant use of "pattern practices," and all the other trappings so familiar to anyone involved in language teaching in the last twenty years.

The revolution in linguistics triggered by Chomsky's publication of *Syntactic Structures* (1) in 1957 and continued by his disciples and critics ever since, along with the equally revolutionary discoveries of cognitive psychology about learning theory, have led us again to a point at which even the most fundamental aspects of foreign-language teaching are undergoing a thorough reappraisal. Materials that emphasize ever-clearer formulations of rules, or ever-improved sequencing of linguistic structures from which students are encouraged to infer the underlying grammar of the target language, are giving way to the recognition that no matter how elegantly and logically we present the grammar and vocabulary of the language, these represent but the obverse of the language-learning coin: They are almost totally lacking in meaning or value without their social and contextual reverse. In short, what has emerged is a recognition that native speakers of a language possess not only the linguistic competence postulated by Chomsky in 1965 (2) but also a social or communicative competence. Neither the grammar-translation method nor the audio-lingual method are adequate solutions to the language-learning problem as current understanding defines it.

The quest of foreign-language teaching continues to be for an approach that treats needs of communication thoroughly and realistically while still presenting students with the grammar and vocabulary necessary to express themselves accurately. Current research is directed less toward the development of new teaching techniques than it is toward the discovery of teaching strategies that present the social and linguistic data in a productive and usable fashion. It would seem that some version of a functional-notional syllabus might well form the basis of such an approach.

A functional-notional syllabus is one that looks not so much at grammatical/linguistic structures within the target language as it does at speech protocols or *functions* onto which linguistic expression is later mapped. In his 1972 book, D.A. Wilkins (10) lists no fewer than 339 communicative functions such as "assertion, astonishment, bewilderment, concern, concession, consent . . . ." The theoretical problem in this type of analysis is that there is rarely if ever a one-to-one relationship between a grammatical structure—say, a transitive verb and its direct object—and a communicative function—say, making a request. Thus, while the literature on functional-notional syllabuses helps to identify the problem, it cannot per se provide immediately usable solutions.

Not only in textbooks but also in classroom procedures, we must continue to seek out a practical compromise between the heavily grammar-oriented methods and the purely functional-notional approach. Classroom procedures must elicit audio-lingual behavior and yet stress linguistic accuracy, lest students who wish to continue their program of mastery find themselves unable to progress beyond an unacceptably low level of proficiency. (See "The Push Toward Communication" in this volume.)

In order to improve our own proficiency and that of our students, it often becomes necessary for us to alter radically the materials that we are working with so as to make them more harmonious with our students' needs. In a typical Spanish textbook, for example, a structure such as *Los gatos son más grandes que los ratones* 'Cats are larger than mice' is usually found in a section called "The Uses of the Definite Article in Spanish." Students are told—implicitly or explicitly—that *el/los* correspond to English *the*. Yet in English, nouns used generically, as above, do not take the definite article. The conceptual fallacy in such texts lies in their *assuming* the grammar of Spanish and using its internal relationships as the organizing principle for the material. From this perspective it is easy to see that, for the student, no organizing principle exists at all, since in order to see the "logic" of the text's organization he or she would have to possess the grammar of the target language. And that is precisely what they are trying to learn.

In the procedures suggested here, the example above would be found, not in a list of the uses of the definite article, but in a more general section on making comparisons, which itself would be part of a unit on descriptions. Rather than tie the structure to an abstract grammatical construct (i.e., the definite article), which in all probability has no reality for the students, we tie it to an ability that students already possess (i.e., making a broad generalization). In other words, wherever possible we link what we want students to learn to something they already know. That scarcely sounds like a radical suggestion, but it is easy to overlook unless one is accustomed to evaluating pedagogical decisions on the basis of their impact on and relationship to students' needs.

What can I do to help?

Improving our own proficiency is the quickest way to improve the proficiency of our students. This is best accomplished by regularly and systematically defining and evaluating our role as foreign-language teachers. This means taking into account the totality of our working environment, identifying student needs, evaluating available materials and other resources, and reserving for ourselves only those aspects of the teaching/learning process that are largely unavailable from any other source.

In order to determine what is unavailable from other sources, we must have a clear sense of who our students are, why they are studying the foreign language, what the program goals are, what the course objectives are, what kind of information and activities show the most promise of reaching the goals and objectives, and what information and activities are already accounted for by the textbook and ancillary materials at our disposal. Whenever we define a need that available resources cannot accommodate we identify a portion of our own role. When students' needs and program goals are not in conflict, role definition is relatively straightforward: we simply implement the program goals in the context of compatible course objectives and select the most appropriate facilitating activities.

Major problems can result when student needs and program goals fail to match. Much of our own experience, confirmed by Rivers' research (6), shows that students usually study foreign languages in order to speak to and understand speakers of that language. However, many programs, especially those at the university level, treat beginning and intermediate language courses as a kind of preliterature program. In the work required of students at upper undergraduate levels, the ability to speak and write accurately is often valued below the ability to analyze and criticize literary works. In these cases, the instructors of the lower level courses must learn to avoid the obvious temptation to "teach reading through reading" and stick to their communicative guns. Fortunately, learning to speak and listen, far from impeding subsequent reading ability, actually facilitates its acquisition in an already literate population. If the program goals, course objectives, and materials fail to provide opportunities for the acquisition of speaking and listening skills, the teacher has little alternative but to take on this task by using techniques that present the required material orally and by encouraging students to respond in kind. This means learning how to allocate classroom time to productive activities.

Decisions about time allocation depend greatly on the individual teacher's circumstances. Ideally, teachers should spend time only on tasks that cannot be accomplished without their direct intervention. At the university level, it is entirely reasonable to assign the bulk of vocabulary learning as out-of-class activity. It is an unconscionable abuse of teachers' time and training to undertake vocabulary learning in class unless there is a conceptual problem associated with a particular lexical item or set of items: false cognates, deceptive English homonyms that require multiple lexical items for "the same word," and so forth. This is also true in matters of verb endings and other grammatical facts peculiar to the target language. "Learning tasks" can be highlighted or otherwise put into focus in class, but the majority of class time should be devoted to "acquisition skills" and to monitoring students' progress.

In making the unavailable available, the teacher's role is one of facilitating the active use of the target language in the classroom, presenting the best possible model of the language, providing feedback, guidance, and reinforcement, and making available target-language data in terms of "comprehensible input," that is, the natural, unconstrained use of the target language in the classroom. In this way we actively aid in the acquisition phase of language learning. The successful assumption of such a role always entails systematic and inspired supplementing and adapting of materials. For a detailed treatment of this aspect of the educational process, see Mary B. Flynn's chapter in this volume, "Breaking the Book Barrier."

It is vital to our success that we recognize limitations as well as possibilities. Fluency in a foreign language does not come out of a textbook, a single course, or even an undergraduate language major. It comes from regular and intensive exposure to the target language in realistic communicative settings. It is quite impossible to simulate in the classroom the intensity of a foreign-language experience in a foreign country. Such an experience ideally includes a completely monolingual/monocultural environment and an exposure of from sixteen to eighteen hours a day, seven days a week. This comes out roughly to 120 hours per week of unremitting exposure to the target language and its speakers, with the concomitant psychological pressure. Comparing that figure to the four to five hours per week that students get in the typical language class helps us and our students appreciate the magnitude of the language-learning task. No one would realistically expect to spend a single summer in a foreign country and then come home bilingual. Yet students in a normal four-year college major get the time equivalent of somewhat less than three months in a foreign-language milieu. And they are not subject in any interesting way to the cultural and psychological realities of foreign living. We must be very careful, especially at the lower levels of study, not to raise our students' expectations too high, lest they later become discouraged when they realize the enormity of the language-learning mission on which they have embarked. Perhaps the best we can offer them is the promise that if they successfully complete a full program of language study, they will be prepared to survive in a target language environment, and by surviving will in fact be able to acquire the elusive blend of fluency and accuracy for which they have so long striven.

Conclusion

This entire volume is implicitly directed at issues related to proficiency. In this introductory chapter, I have tried to discuss just a few of the indications that competence—for students and teachers—is one of the pressing issues of the eighties. In the following chapters you will find detailed treatments of textbooks, supplementary materials and activities, pedagogy, curricula, and programming. Reading and acting upon any one of these chapters will make each of us a more effective and flexible teacher. Assimilating the entire volume will make it possible both to reevaluate ourselves and to redefine our role as foreign-language teachers. We will become more aware of the relationships that exist among who we are, what we do, and what our students wish we would do. We will be able to assume a more positive control over our programs and to make informed decisions about the multitude of problems that we must confront daily.

What can you do to help? The following list may get you started:

- Keep on reading. The fact that you have read this far is already a positive sign.
- Read and respond to the "Open Letter to the Profession" (8) in the April, 1981, *Foreign Language Annals.*
- Read, think about, and discuss articles found in professional journals.
- Be concerned not only for yourself, but for your colleagues—and above all, for your students.
- Take the time to get to know your students, and learn to put them first in your planning and activities.
- Join ACTFL and the other professional organizations associated with your own foreign language.
- Support local, state, and national efforts at raising standards for foreign-language teachers.
- Take every possible advantage of opportunities to travel and study abroad. If you can't finance it yourself, become a chaperone/sponsor of student trips abroad.
- Go back to school and take additional content or pedagogy courses related to your language.
- Work to establish or expand AFS or other exchange programs in your school.
- Encourage your department to reevaluate its program goals and teaching materials in the face of shifting student needs. Find out what your students really want, and see how well your program matches their desires.
- Seek out new types of language classes. Establish or expand nontraditional, specialized programs in your language: Spanish for social workers, French for medical personnel, and so forth.

- Take the time to identify exactly where you are at any given moment—in the course you are teaching and in the program of which your course is a part. Know how what you are doing today fits with what you did last month and what you will be doing next month.
- Undertake the study of a language unrelated to the one you teach. Nothing will help you more in identifying with your own students.

The eighties can be a decade of unparalleled opportunity in foreign-language education. With the impetus provided by *Strength Through Wisdom* (9), the gains being realized by organizations such as ACTFL, and the commitment of the members of the profession, there is little that cannot be accomplished. The answer to "What can I do to help?" is "A lot." Recharge your batteries. Include your students and your colleagues in your search for a better way. Broaden your horizons. Care.

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1

The Textbook as Curriculum

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Introduction

The area in which the teacher and the curriculum come into closest contact is in the selection and use of textbooks and related materials. Whether teachers participate actively in text selection or not, it is important they be aware of the process through which a text is chosen. What guides such a selection? After a choice is made, what are the consequences in the classroom? How can we recognize when even a good text is deficient in certain areas and compensate for its deficiencies? These are difficult questions, and they have no obvious answers. Even so, it is possible to make recommendations if we begin with basic program goals and develop a strategy for matching goals with texts and with prescribed or implied classroom activities.

Dealing with problems of such magnitude demands that we understand the nature of textbooks and the process through which they come into existence. A textbook is often regarded as an immutable and almost mythical object. Our attitude about a text may border on reverence. Many of us will defend our chosen text passionately, at least for the first two years after its adoption. We rarely ask how the text came into being, or what forces were at work during its preparation.

The making of a textbook

When we identify the complex and contradictory forces that influence the creation of a textbook, we can appreciate more fully the quality of materials

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that are produced. The text is always a product of compromises. The first and perhaps most critical area of compromise is between the author and the publisher.

Generally speaking, the publisher's primary goal must be to market a profitable product; no publisher undertakes a major project in hopes of losing money. However, publishers are also motivated by a desire—if not a commitment—to advance the profession by providing high-quality, reliable, and even moderately innovative materials. In a word, the publisher's first goal is financial success. Establishing a reputation for quality and innovation may be considered a way to achieve this goal.

The author's first goal is to advance the profession and improve the state of the art by providing teaching materials that facilitate the study of foreign language. A secondary goal is financial reward for the considerable work involved, since writing a quality text may take years. Thus, the author's goals are first to innovate, and then to succeed financially. While these appear to be the same goals as the publisher's, they differ in degree and order of importance.

Although their common goals provide the basis for collaboration between author and publisher, the differences in emphasis and priority account for the tension that exists between them. Compromises must be made if a textbook manuscript is to reach the production stage.

A truly innovative approach may be unfamiliar to teachers and so meet with their resistance; it may be threatening to the public responsible for text adoptions, and it may create public controversy. A publisher's success is based on the ability to satisfy the majority of the public; thus, the preference to aim for the mainstream—to sterilize situations and vocabulary and arouse as little controversy as possible. These products of compromise may be as boring as the innovative materials are threatening. Falling too close to either end of the spectrum can have a catastrophic impact on a text's marketability. Finding a perfect balance between innovation and salability is maddeningly difficult.

This is the reason why most popular textbooks look so much alike. Their similarity is due not so much to their treatment of the same subject—there are many ways to approach the teaching of a foreign language—as to their common bias. They are products of a homogenizing process. As publishers attempt to satisfy the greatest number of potential clients, the product often reflects the culture of the latter as much as, or perhaps even more than, it reflects the culture of the target society. Since publishers are aware of differing criteria of acceptability in the various geographical areas of the United States, and since the cultural concepts presented in the texts must be acceptable throughout the country, texts must mirror only the more conservative attitudes and moral positions. Many publishers systematically delete all (or all but traditional considerations of) topics believed to be controversial or taboo. This tendency has several significant consequences. Besides making texts look alike, these biases affect the treatment of target cultures and may result in inaccurate descriptions or characterizations. The text becomes an ethnocentric clone of the most conservative expression of our own culture.

In most texts, mention of alcohol consumption is carefully avoided, even in situations where it would be a matter of course. How can the French culture be accurately portrayed without noting the pervasive role of wine and the multitude of culturally authentic and relevant situations that revolve around its consumption? How can German culture be presented without including the sociology of beer drinking? Are publishers, in avoiding these topics, depicting their own culture's attitudes or the mores of the target culture?

Similarly, certain expressions that suggest religion are routinely stricken. For instance, it is rare to find ***Santo Dios, Virgen Santa,*** or ***Ay, Jesús*** in a Spanish text, because of their (superficially) religious denotations, in spite of the fact that such expressions are common to all varieties of Spanish and at all social levels. Even though these expressions have sociolinguistically lost virtually all religious meaning in Spanish, they are perceived by the ethnocentric and conservative American as having kept it, and therefore they become unacceptable for inclusion in textbooks.

Radical politics often is another taboo. For instance, the great number and diversity of French political parties is not treated, even though they are an integral part of French thought and represent in microcosm the complexity of the French society and its ideological makeup. Lacking any information to the contrary, students infer that French culture differs politically either not at all or only superficially from their own.

Anti-nuclear movements, feminism, environmentalism, radicalism, and many other categories of social or political action are missing from most texts, all in the name of remaining inoffensive to mainstream America. This is not to say that authors should be spokesmen for particular causes or indeed to suggest that any or all of these causes are legitimate. But the fact that they exist in the target culture should make authors feel obliged to deal with them in order to achieve an accurate depiction of the foreign society. One can broach such matters without advocating them.

Sex and related topics are also conspicuously absent from the typical textbook. The fact that these subjects might be of vital interest to the general population of our own and of many foreign countries is not reflected in texts. Sadly, in neglecting certain topics, textbooks not only distort the foreign cultures, they also deprive students of discussion topics that they are most interested in and to which they likely give great importance. Even the opportunity to learn about one's own culture is lost under such circumstances.

Terrell (23) writes that "language learning takes place when there is a real need and motivation for it . . ." and that evidence suggests that "the primary factors which influence L2 acquisition are affective and not cognitive." How could a motivation exist for foreign-language learning if the only topics for discussion are uninteresting? If students are interested in the "taboo" topics but are given only other topics to discuss, it is no wonder that stimulating class discussions are difficult to promote. If students are not interested in the topic proposed, they have no reason to talk about it either in their own or in the foreign language. Rivers, mountains, and capital cities have limited value as communicative stimuli. When interest and motivation are missing, pupils see no need for communication. Where there is motivation and a desire to know, communication is not far behind.

It appears that teachers, when confronted with the most widely available materials, must perform three jobs: 1) to facilitate their students' acquisition of linguistic structures, 2) to lead conversation or other communicative sessions, and 3) to motivate students by convincing them that only mainstream, noncontroversial subjects are interesting to talk about. Perhaps teachers could do a better job with their first two tasks if they were not burdened with the third one.

In addition to rendering so-called cultural materials essentially sterile, texts often treat the foreign language itself not in its own milieu but in an American cultural context. Not surprisingly, many students return from abroad complaining that they were not taught about most of "the real stuff." We might point out to them before they take a language course that what they are about to learn is not standard French, Spanish, or German, but rather a subset of the language, cast in an American cultural context. This would be a kind of truth-in-packaging law for foreign-language classes.

Distortions of the target culture do not always end with the suppression of certain topics. There is also a tendency to provide the public with what it expects, even though these expectations may be based on generalizations, cultural stereotypes, or outright falsehoods. Many texts reinforce the stereotypes of the romantic Frenchman, the macho Spaniard, and the officious German. Whether this is done consciously or unconsciously is not relevant. What is relevant is the link made between cultural stereotypes and their reinforcement and subsequent legitimizing in textbooks.

On occasion, texts may even seek grammatical confirmation for their stereotypes. A book might point out that the French have but one verb, *aimer*, meaning 'to like' or 'to love'—as though there could not be any distinction between these two concepts in the mind of the French native speaker. In the process, the same book totally omits mention of the expression *aimer bien* 'to like.' It has been pointed out in textbooks that in Spanish clocks walk (*andar*), while in English they run. Similarly, in Spanish a group of females is designated by the feminine forms of the personal pronouns. But if there is a single male among the group, the masculine forms are used to designate the group. Some have even allowed students to infer that this is a grammatical confirmation of machismo. The explanation ignores altogether the fact that the so-called masculine form is undifferentiated in this function, and so naturally is used to describe an undifferentiated group of people; it allows the notion that grammatical gender is based on biological sex, a completely false assumption.

As another way of satisfying the greatest number of people, publishers often insist that the text contain "everything." All of the grammatical material normally contained in any text of its type must be found in each new text. The publisher wants to avoid the situation in which a client looks for the treatment of a particular grammatical point, fails to find it, and rejects the book.

Looking at this tendency objectively, one may ask, "What does it matter if there are low-frequency items included in the text? They do not all have to be taught, do they?" The point is well taken, except that there is a tendency to regard the text as sacrosanct and so to teach all that it contains. In effect, putting an excessive amount of material in for the sake of completeness effectively introduces it into the curriculum, where it becomes part of the general overload. This situation has prompted several experts (e.g., Valdman, 25 and Belasco, 2) to call for a reduction of the class load to allow instructors to teach more intensively what material is presented. We must question the validity of presenting exhaustively the structures of the target language at the earliest levels. If this were not done, would not textbooks be less expensive and the curriculum more manageable? Would the students lose critical linguistic or cultural information without these extras?

At the same time authors are compromising with publishers, they must also compromise with themselves. Every time a grammatical point is presented, a compromise is made between explaining it fully and explaining it briefly. Any language feature could be the subject of several pages of explanation and illustration. The author's dilemma is trying to provide short, clear statements while at the same time being honest and linguistically accurate—a very difficult undertaking.

In a Spanish text, for example, it will be necessary to caution against using present participles as adjectives (e.g., a barking dog, a crying baby). The obvious generalization is that *-ndo* forms are never used as adjectives. At this point, the author must decide whether or not to mention *agua hirviendo* 'boiling water.' In French, many texts present *beaucoup* as always followed by *de*, as in *beaucoup de bonbons* 'many candies.' Authors know that American students, following the English pattern, will omit the *de*. When students encounters a sentence of the type *Beaucoup des bonbons que j'ai achetés sont rouges* 'Many of the candies that I bought are red,' they may become confused, since demonstrably *beaucoup* is not always followed by *de*. In their attempts to be clear and concise, and in the interest of efficient learning, the authors must constantly choose between absolute truth and pedagogical utility. These kinds of compromises are also an inescapable part of textbook preparation.

Similar problems await authors whenever the target language has many standard dialects. Choosing even basic lexical items forces a decision about regionalisms. In Spanish, the word for a ballpoint pen can be *el esfero, la* *pluma, el lapicero,* or *el bolígrafo.* None of these words is used in all Spanish-speaking areas. Which should an author use, short of writing a linguistic atlas rather than a beginning textbook? Suppose an author's native dialect of Spanish is highland Colombian, and that author systematically presents Latin American Spanish throughout the text. Where, if at all, should the *vosotros* verb forms—used only in Spain—be included? If, in the name of linguistic consistency, they are excluded entirely, a significant number of potential buyers will be offended. Will they be less offended if the *vosotros* forms appear only in a note, or in a cultural comment? Must they be systematically included in verb drills throughout the book, and if so, what then becomes of the goal of linguistic consistency? No solution is wholly satisfactory but one must be adopted. In most cases, the consistency arguments should triumph, provided that all the data are available and easy to locate in the text. Authors must constantly make compromises involving language, pedagogy, and marketability. Yet each compromise weakens the whole.

The text and the curriculum

Textbooks evoke a variety of emotions in their users. No one is entirely happy about the text in use, and at the same time very few people manage to teach without a text. Foreign-language texts seem to be as much maligned as they are indispensable. Judging from discussions at faculty meetings, conferences, and informal meetings, it appears that most teachers find commercially prepared texts deficient in many respects.

There is no denying that the textbook is an essential part of the curriculum. With the exception of the blackboard, it is probably the most important instructional tool available to us. Perhaps in some fields textbooks may not have great importance. In foreign-language classes, however, they are essential.

First, the foreign-language textbook embodies a specific teaching methodology and a set of goals. The selection of a text implies a close fit between its own goals and methodology and those of the user. It is a customized tool that reflects assumptions about teaching practices—how foreign languages are learned (and thus should be taught)—and sometimes even about the teacher's own personality or teaching style.

Another reason why the foreign-language text is so important is that together with ancillary materials such as tapes and workbooks, it is the main source of guidance for both students and teachers. In class, they use the text for examples, exercises, drills, reading passages, cultural information, and so on. At home, students rely on the text for its vocabulary, written exercises, oral work, and explanations of grammatical material. It may also be used as a reference tool, assuming it has the standard appendixes and glossaries. It may even be seen as a means of motivating students to pursue language study by offering glimpses of exotic situations in its illustrations and readings.

The teacher also relies heavily on the text. Teachers constantly interpret the material subjectively by emphasizing, simplifying, and personalizing it. It is also true that the text's sequence, methodology, pacing, and vocabulary usage are followed almost to the letter by most teachers. Complete reworking of textual materials requires such an enormous amount of work and expertise that few teachers undertake the task. Nor should they need to if a quality text is in use.

The importance of the textbook in a foreign-language class makes its selection a crucial process. The text must be selected in accordance with the student population. One cannot apply a second year text in a first year class. Nor should one use a text appropriate for beginning college students in a beginning high school course. These considerations of level are self evident and need not concern us further. Other student related matters demand our attention, however.

Since student populations are quite diverse from region to region in the United States, a text perfectly appropriate, say, in the Midwest may not be appropriate elsewhere. We must be aware that the students' needs vary geographically, and that a textbook must be selected with these needs in mind. For example, New Yorkers do not need to be convinced that Spanish is a living language. They find evidence of this everywhere around them: in the subways, in shops and street signs, in graffiti. In the Midwest, many students will never have encountered a large Spanish-speaking population, and they may need to be convinced both of the reality and of the utility of the language. Similarly, students in northern New England or in parts of Louisiana have no trouble seeing the concrete usefulness of French, while in the Northwest there is little opportunity to observe its functional utility. This point is also illustrated with Puerto Rican or Cuban students who study Spanish. Such students have needs widely divergent from those of other students. Whatever text is selected must reflect these disparate situations.

When the student population is more mature and sophisticated, as in an adult-education program, the text must take this into account. A college-level text usually describes situations that are familiar to young adults. Dialogues and other presentations normally center around going to classes, attending social functions, and so forth. These would not be particularly useful materials for teaching a group of businessmen to be more effective in their overseas work, nor would they be appropriate for a group of lawyers, paraprofessionals, or urban policemen learning Spanish. The text must to some extent be tailored to the needs of its users.

Stevick (21) has suggested that in these types of situations the teacher adopt a basic grammar with good and concise information, and subsequently vary the lexical set to fit specific clients. The policemen would be taught vocabulary appropriate to their occupation, while lawyers or paraprofessionals would learn different vocabulary. Both, however, would use the same basic grammar as a foundation.

The linguistic background and preparation of the teaching staff also bears on text selection. As one example, consider these two Spanish teachers, one a native speaker, the other an English speaker. The English speaker has learned Spanish in a North American university. He has studied abroad, and his control of Spanish is adequate but not truly native. He has little trouble proposing and explaining grammatical rules and observations: he accesses his memory, states the rules, and gives some exceptions. He is also able to provide his students with various mnemonic devices to help in remembering those rules. When it comes to providing examples, however, this nonnative teacher has a much harder time. Examples from everyday Spanish do not readily come to mind and are not spontaneous. The further he gets from the textbook material, the more insecure and uncomfortable he becomes.

The native-speaking Spanish teacher has no trouble providing copious examples. But for him the formulation of rules is much more difficult, since he did not originally learn the language in terms of grammatical rules and applications but rather as an organic, flexible, and integral part of his experience. Many mistakes were no doubt made in the process, but "rules" were never really expressed. His language was acquired and assimilated unconsciously.

The native Spanish teacher does better with a text that provides clear and relatively more elaborate statements of grammatical usage and relationships, while the nonnative does better with a text that provides a wealth of examples.

Now, compare the teaching environment in a typical small college with that of a large university. In the college a text is used by a small number of teachers and a limited number of students. Each class has only one section, and the instructors are usually career language teachers. In the university there are large numbers of students beginning the language sequence. There are several sections of each course which, for administrative reasons, must all be equivalent. Finally, most of the teaching is handled by graduate teaching assistants.

What implications are there here for choosing a textbook? Again, the preparation of the teaching staff must be taken into account. The experienced teachers readily adjust to different teaching materials and can adapt them to the students' needs. The novice teaching assistant needs materials that are more complete and that fit the pedagogical objectives of the program very closely. No one can require that a novice do extensive adapting. The beginning teacher needs a text that has many and varied exercises to choose from and materials that are heavily annotated with suggestions for their use. Totally different text requirements emerge for each of these two situations.

Now consider the methodological problems that the text presents. The text is the end product of a complex process. It is the tip of a large pyramid that has as its base the economic and political realities of the time. Just above the base is the current rationale for foreign-language teaching. Just above the rationale, and influenced by it, are the available methodologies for foreign-language teaching. Of course, some of the methodologies are more or less applicable or popular, depending on the current rationale. Grammar-translation, for example, may not be viable when the rationale specifies aural-oral skills. Finally, at the top of the pyramid are the textbooks, which reflect one or the other of the current methodologies.

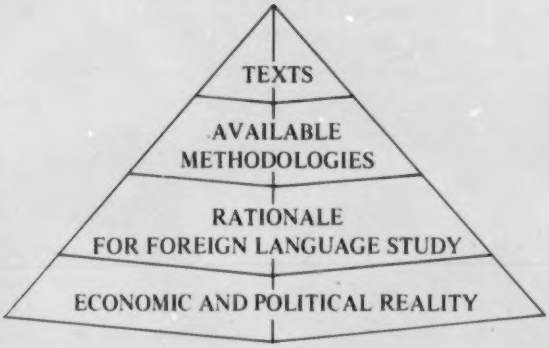
TEXTS
AVAILABLE METHODOLOGIES
RATIONALE FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDY
ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL REALITY

Figure 1. The Pedagogical Pyramid

Although a pyramidal structure is static and the changing realities are dynamic, the pyramid is useful in establishing an order of precedence that influences the total context of foreign-language education. Without rationales there are no goals; without goals there are no methodologies; without methodologies texts could not exist.

The pyramid in today's world

How can we characterize the economic and political realities that in part determine the present-day rationale for teaching foreign language? How is this rationale translated into goals, and what methodologies are proposed to reach them? The questions are difficult not because there are no answers but because there are too many. Some answers point to new reasons to study foreign languages, while others reflect attitudes that have existed since the 18th century.

Many have written on the contemporary rationale for the teaching of foreign languages. Among the commentators, Alter (1), Dodge (6), Grittner (8) and Myers (14) describe a diversity of goals that ranges from pragmatism through humanism. Grittner (8) associates the broadening of foreign-language goals with the mid-1960s, and defines the current trends as "a willingness to change, to experiment, and to accept contemporary materials along with the tried and true documents of the past. In fact, the modern humanist does not limit foreign-language content to written documents alone. Materials reproduced on films, tapes, and records can also serve. But the insistence upon the fullest possible cultivation of human abilities—particularly the intellectual—remains an end in itself."

Whereas formerly the rationale for teaching foreign language was rather limited, it now encompasses a wider range of possibilities. In the 1930s and 1940s, one learned foreign languages primarily through the written word in order to understand literature. Nowadays, in addition to being able to read, students are generally expected to speak the target language and to understand the culture of its speakers. Goals such as "communicative competence" (4, 17, 18, 19) and "the four skills plus culture" attest to the broadened objectives.

While modern objectives have been extended, formerly held objectives have not been discarded. Instead the ability to perform grammatical and literary analysis and to translate have all been incorporated into the overall objectives, although their relative importance has somewhat diminished. Foreign-language clases that teach how to translate are common and necessary at advanced levels, and many courses require that students perform sophisticated grammar analysis.

The contemporary trend to ascribing utilitarian values to the study of foreign languages has its roots in the economic and political realities of the 1950s, and was already well established in 1958 when President Eisenhower signed the National Defense Education Act into law. The implication was that learning foreign languages was in the national interest. Teaching foreign languages was placed on a par with teaching hard sciences, as a matter of importance crucial to our national integrity and even to our national defense.

Today, in addition to arguments about the national interest, we are also likely to hear about the need for foreign-language training in business (22). The rationale is very useful and is potentially the more justifiable in terms of pragmatic value. It is easy to convince someone of the need for a foreign language to transact business abroad by pointing out Germany's or Japan's practice of training sales forces in foreign languages as one of the reasons for their economic recovery. The function of the foreign language within this rationale is to provide our students with certain auxiliary communicative skills. Such training in business is but one of the many possible auxiliary functions. Sherif (20) mentions many career opportunities for people who have foreign-language skills.

The common rationale for foreign-language teaching, however, continues to be broadly humanistic. Learning a foreign language is a process that leads to increased self-awareness. The language classroom is a setting in which one can observe another social and linguistic body, and eventually gain insight into one's own culture and language through comparison. People who do not know another language are not fully able to understand the world around them. Learning foreign languages can thus be seen as an essential means of promoting cross-cultural understanding.

The foreign-language teacher—or the school district official—drafts program goals based on the prevailing rationales. Not surprisingly, then, we see today that program goals include many skills. Grittner (8) notes this in a summary of essential learning objectives for the commonly taught European languages. He writes, "Assuming that oral and written communication is the ultimate goal of instruction, it is evident that the student must be able to recognize all auditory and graphic symbols as they are used in writing and in the normal flow of native speech. It is also clear that learning a considerable number of 'content words' is a matter of high priority, perhaps second in importance only to the mastery of phonology, morphology, and syntax. Many would insist that the vocabulary be acquired with a clear understanding of the cultural implications carried by the foreign words." The concepts to be mastered, therefore, include phonology, morphology, syntax, vocabulary, and culture. Each concept must be learned as a listening, speaking, reading, and writing skill. Grittner is careful to point out that there are distinctly different objectives and learning problems for each skill, and he concludes that the student should also be encouraged to conceptualize freely in order "to apply spontaneously everything one has learned to new situations."

As the objectives of foreign-language teaching become broader, educators increasingly advocate a reduction in their number. Warriner et al. (27) make such a plea about goals at the high school level:

> In the post-Sputnik days of the early 1960s we decided that we had better catch up with the Russians verbally as well as technologically, so we added two skills, listening and speaking, to our traditional objectives of reading and writing. We also realized that we ought to know more about the peoples of the world, so we expanded, intensified, and changed the teaching of culture. So far, so good. These were overdue changes, even if they were precipitated by the Russians and the wrong motives. But where we went very wrong, I realize more and more, is that we expected teachers to cover the previous course, curriculum, or whatever you want to call it—that is, from *¿Qué es el burro?* through the past subjunctive by June of level 2—and teach the student to speak the language as well. We are fooling ourselves if we think that we can do it.

Some program goals may well have become unreachable.

Whatever the chosen goals, the text must reflect them as closely as possible if they are ever to be reached. It thus becomes important to evaluate a text to ensure a high degree of congruence between its goals and those of the program. While we strive for a perfect fit, we can settle for less: one that is at least close enough to spare the teacher the burden of extensive adaptation.

Evaluating teaching materials

Criteria for text selection depend on the nature of the course. In pursuing the goals of four skills plus culture, what can we reasonably expect the students to learn, at what level of mastery, and in what space of time? It is easy to be too optimistic, so we will concentrate on attainable goals and then see how to go about choosing a text with them in mind.

Let us agree that students should be able to understand and say simple sentences dealing with everyday events in the foreign language. They should also be able to read signs, maps, magazine stories, and to write letters of request for services or short narratives in the target language. We also want the students to be aware of the routine habits and customs of the target culture. How do we select a promising textbook?

As we assess the suitability of a text in the context of a set of goals, there are many criteria to evaluate. The first thing to do is find out what the goals of the text are, so we can compare them with our own. By comparing the two for fit, we begin to determine the extent to which the text is suitable. The obvious place to start is in the author's preface, being careful to read between the lines because many prefaces may try to promote the book by being too accommodating or by claiming impossible ranges of flexibility. A look at the index will tell whether the text addresses the same problems as those planned for the course. Again, caution is the watchword. In many cases both the statements of intent and the listings in the index may seem to match our goals, but on close examination these both may fail completely.

In the preface of the text we often find statements that specifically address each skill and sound very close to ideal, so we are led to believe that these goals are addressed systematically in the text itself. But if a preface promises listening comprehension and the only associated activity in the text is dictation, we can be sure that this will not be sufficient for reaching our goal of understanding routine utterances.

Similarly, the preface may promise to provide writing skills, but if the related activity merely asks the student to write a paragraph based on the dialogue, using specific linguistic patterns that have been provided in the exercise, we cannot expect much progress toward our goal. Such an activity is essentially transcription, very similar to dictation. It may represent one step toward our goal, but it alone surely will not fulfill it, since it does not provide opportunity for autonomous expression.

The reading goal is subject to the same caveat. Often reading passages are no more than warmed-over versions of the dialogues. They are often restricted to the same vocabulary and to the same structures already presented. This kind of activity, while perhaps useful at times, will not help the student to handle, say, magazine articles. A more appropriate activity would be to present students with a real paragraph, one that provides an example of the target language in a natural, unedited context, and goes beyond the student's present ability to express himself. This challenges the student to interpolate and otherwise implement comprehension skills.

For the most part, activities that purport to address the skill of speaking are the least satisfactory. Scanning a variety of texts, we most likely find only dialogue repetitions and perhaps a few questions relating to the dialogue. Certainly these activities will not by themselves result in meaningful, autonomous communication. Better activities are those suggested by Rivers (17) such as "establishing social relations, seeking and giving information, expressing reactions, learning to do something, hiding one's intentions or talking one's way out of trouble, persuading, discouraging, entertaining others, or displaying one's achievements." These activities can be incorporated into even the most elementary language course, although they are easiest at higher levels.

The operative question, then, is "How does the text *do* what it promises to do?" If we can see that the activities found in the text itself fall short of our goals, we must either resign ourselves to extensive adaptation or reject the proposed text.

Once we find a text that satisfies our general goal requirements, what other criteria come into play? Tucker (24) proposes the following four categories: 1) pronunciation, 2) grammar, 3) content, 4) general. He also describes a way to rate each of the criteria, to weigh the rating, and finally to display the results on a chart, giving a graphic profile of the total evaluation.

Since the accurate production of sounds in the target language is one of our goals, pronunciation will be one of our criteria for text adoption. We need to know if the presentation of the sounds of the foreign language is complete. Does it include intonation patterns as well as presentations on the individual sounds? Is the presentation appropriate for the students? Texts that treat pronunciation as an afterthought, in an appendix, may not be suitable. Is there enough practice? In addition to descriptions of how the sounds are produced, examples of the use of the sounds in isolated words, in expressions, and in sentences are needed. Questions requiring the student to use the newly learned sounds are a plus. Taped materials are also beneficial.

What kinds of defects can the teacher account for on his own? Certain features become defects only in relation to our own goals. If we have no desire to offer a phonology course, a text is defective when explanations are framed in the phonetician's jargon. Students are not concerned that French has front-rounded vowels. Their only concern is to hear and produce the vowels accurately in a meaningful context. Technical explanations have no essential place in a beginning text; tips on how to produce a given sound do. A text that takes up all the details of French phonetics need not be eliminated from consideration, but the teacher will know that some work in adaptation—primarily by elimination—will be necessary.

When we evaluate a text in terms of grammar we need first to understand how grammar relates to the program goals. Notice that we did not mention grammar in our goal statements. But clearly, to eliminate the teaching of grammar would be counterproductive in the extreme, since the acquisition of grammatical control is implicit in learning a language. It is the basis of successful listening, reading, writing, and speaking. We are not interested in teaching grammar as an end in itself; students are not better prepared when they can say "adjectives agree in number and gender with the nouns they modify." It matters only that they routinely say *la chemise verte* 'the green shirt.' The ability to verbalize a grammatical rule does not ensure that the rule will be appropriately applied in free conversation.

At issue here is not whether grammatical accuracy and precision are to be abandoned, but whether the treatment of grammar as an independent object of study should play a central role in the curriculum. Teachers can become so distracted explaining grammar and doing structural exercises that no class time is left for free expression. As Dulay and Burt (7) point out, "Perhaps the most important characteristic of a natural communication situation that is most overlooked in language classrooms is that the attention of the speaker and hearer is on the 'message' or content of the verbal exchange rather than on its form. Yet most language teaching materials focus on the structures to be taught, and the message, if there is one, is meaningless for both teachers and students."

In a similar vein, Higgs (10) recalls this too-common classroom situation: "'Today you're going to learn how to use the subjunctive,' as if the student knew what the subjunctive was and what it was good for, and needed only to learn how to use it. For the student, the subjunctive has no reality whatsoever. Why should he want to learn how to use it? What will he be able to do once he knows how to use it that he can't do until then? What the student needs to know is how to express, say, a desire or a request, so that his communication needs can be served."

Terrell (23) proposes that "the entire class period be devoted to communicative activities. Explanation and practice with form is essential if we expect any improvement in the output of the students' developing grammars, but they can be done for the most part outside of class." In contrast with this position is the present-day tendency for most of the class time to be devoted to explanation and practice with grammatical constructs. Not surprisingly, we notice that most popular texts are not only structured according to extrinsic grammatical concepts, but also that most of their exercises deal with forms: linguistic calisthenics involving the morphological or syntactic aspects of the language. The most practical resolution of the conflict between linguistic precision and communicative use of the target language is to take an intermediary position. Let us say that we will do in class sufficient linguistic calisthenics to identify the necessary forms and then strive to use them for authentic communicative activities. What then do we look for in the text?

First of all, the presentations should be clear and complete enough that the student can review them at home, yet concise enough to provide only the essential information. We should beware of rambling, overly technical explanations. Simple graphic devices—boxes, shading, color, and arrows—can help.

We should look for a variety of exercises. There should be patently communicative activities, some to be done in class, others to be prepared at home. Activities that require the student to get and/or provide information are a promising starting point.

The content of the text needs to be scrutinized: the amount and type of vocabulary, the pertinence of the situations that are presented, and the authenticity of the cultural context are relevant considerations.

Evaluating the content

Is the pace of entry and re-entry adequate? There should be no unduly heavy chapters. Some texts have too much material in some chapters and too little in others. An even distribution between new constructions and new vocabulary is desirable. One should check also for spiraled material. Once material is introduced and practiced it should continue to appear in subsequent lessons.

Is the language authentic? Are the situations and dialogues natural? Dialogues, readings, and other presentations should be neither too formal nor too colloquial. For the same reasons, cultural presentations must also be authentic and accurate. Stereotypes, bias, or gratuitous value judgments must be scrupulously avoided.

How does the text look? Is the text as error-free as possible? It should be attractive and well laid out, with plenty of white space. Illustrations should be attractive and relevant to the content. There should be appendixes and other end matter with maps, verb summaries, and a glossary. Physical characteristics are also important. Since most texts will be used for several years, durability is also an important factor.

What about additional materials? The availability of supplementary materials is crucial. There should be a workbook, audio tapes, a teacher's edition, and perhaps even sample tests for each lesson or unit. Workbooks are easiest to correct when they have tear-out pages, and their material should not merely duplicate the main text's. Tapes should also have additional and independently interesting material. The availability of a teacher's guide just might tip the scales in favor of one text over another.

A case study in text selection

To get a realistic perspective on textbook selection, I asked a colleague (11) to describe how he had selected a textbook for a beginning Spanish course to be taught in a large eastern university. What follows is a paraphrase of his response:

> The course was to be taught in Spanish from the outset, with stress on oral/aural skills. After reading many authors' prefaces I found one that said ". . . based on the 'Verbal-Active Method' . . . imaginative self-expression . . . student-centered . . . relevant questions that call for 'real' answers . . . learning is accomplished in Spanish . . . ." This sounded close to ideal.
>
> The only point at which my biases appeared to clash with the authors' involved the statement that, "The teacher will . . . carefully avoid using vocabulary and structures that students would not know . . . ," since I routinely speak to my students using Spanish that is at once comprehensible but also above their active mastery. Importantly, this clash affected neither the content of the text nor my use of it. I tentatively adopted the text, not because it was perfect, but because it was the least of the candidate evils. The problems solved by selecting the text were immediately replaced by those caused by having selected it. One example will suffice to illustrate this.
>
> A generalization about answering questions in Spanish recommends that one deemphasize *shared* information by deletion or reduction to a pronoun, and emphasize *new* information by altering word order in statable ways. When one of the text's relevant questions was *¿Dónde está el libro?* and the suggested real answer was *El libro está en la mesa* there was a problem. I wanted students to omit the redundant subject, *el libro*. Later, to *¿Eres la más alta de tu familia?* the sample answer was *No, mi padre es el más alto.* I wanted the new information at the end: *No, el más alto es mi padre.*
>
> By the time four additional word-order "problems" had surfaced, it was clear that a clash of biases much more serious than the earlier one was involved. The authors' implicit bias was to keep Spanish syntax as parallel as possible to English. My own was to keep the Spanish as natural and authentic as possible. In at least this critical area we were poles apart.
>
> Could the book still be adopted? Given my bias, would students lose faith in their book, refuse to study from it, or revolt over having just paid some $20.00 for a "loser"? Should I condemn them to learning "Standard American Classroom" as their only working dialect of Spanish?
>
> Happily there was a solution. I explained to the students the authors' apparent bias, and then defended it: They tried to make things

> as easy for you as they could; they were consistent throughout the text; this is a good book or it would not have been selected; most of what they do they do very well' . . . . Then I confessed my own bias and defended it. What had begun as a potential source of conflict soon became a positive learning tool: during the course students would scan looking for places at which "our way" differed from "their way." They thereby acquired the structures in question perhaps even more easily and thoroughly than if the book had done it "our way" all along.

Two interesting points come out of this response. The first deals with the concepts of "right" and "wrong" as applied to a methodology. The best measure of the validity of a methodology is the degree of congruence between the learning activities it makes available and the goals of the program in which it is applied. Second, we do well to acknowledge that our judgment of "the best way" is often a matter of personal belief and commitment. When we modify an existing methodology we substitute our own beliefs for those of an author.

A perfect text does not exist for any given course, even if it is written with a specific course in mind. By judiciously choosing the best text available, we try for the best possible match of objectives and thereby provide a set of materials that are useful and that facilitate both the students' and the teachers' task. The important thing is to adopt a text whose perceived flaws are correctable, in the sense that the teacher can easily make the author's biases more harmonious with his own. While the preceding discussion is of anecdotal value in deciding which text to adopt, the "Text Evaluation Checksheet" designed by Cowles (5) gives another viewpoint on the same subject but approaches the process more systematically.

Adapting materials

Many teachers do not feel involved in the process of materials selection. According to the Warriner et al. survey of foreign-language specialists in the departments of education in each state (27), "approximately half of the states have some form of [regulated] adoption system," which interposes a committee or a board in the materials selection decision between the teachers and the materials they will be asked to use. Others, who in theory exercise some degree of control, may have inherited materials, and for economic or political reasons cannot immediately exercise their own choice. This creates a situation in which the instructors are asked to implement as well as possible certain strategies with existing materials. These may imply a methodology altogether different from the one envisioned by the individual instructor. Do such situations relieve individuals of their responsibility to use the materials to the best advantage of their students? Not at all. They merely shift that responsibility to the area of adaptation.

Materials adaptation is not a new concept. Teachers adapt constantly whenever they provide additional examples or exercises, clarify an explanation, introduce a relevant cultural aside, or display an item of realia. Teachers adapt when they prescribe materials for slower students, or when they challenge faster students with special projects. Most simply, teachers adapt when they teach. Madsen and Bowen (12) note that "It would be a trivial exercise to write a special book to tell teachers that it is necessary to particularize teaching materials in a classroom. This is the heart of teaching and should be a prominent concern in any teacher-training course." However, the teacher may need to do more than interpret materials for a particular situation.

Madsen and Bowen classify adaptations according to three categories: "The individualizing of material . . . , modifying a text for purposes not intended or anticipated by the author, and compensating for textbook defects." To accomplish this the teacher may use one or more of the following techniques: "supplementing, editing, expanding, personalizing, simplifying, modernizing, localizing or modifying cultural/situational content." Chapter three of this volume is directly concerned with the use of supplementary materials. I will here limit discussion to matters of adaptation.

For some, adapting materials means handing out reams of locally prepared *additional* materials. Strasheim (27) describes this phenomenon: "We have, for one reason or another, always discussed textbook 'supplementation' rather than 'adaptation,' as if every existing text had to be complemented, as if each and every one had serious shortcomings: teachers adopt texts expecting to 'supplement' before they have real, in-depth knowledge of the materials they have selected."

Before undertaking the time-consuming task of supplementing, the teacher must make a thorough assessment of the text. Those elements that will do well in the particular classroom situation envisioned should be identified and the elements that are unsuitable noted. With a list of specific program goals in hand, teachers should scrutinize materials and make decisions concerning goals that are met and those that are not. The latter must be addressed separately, but assuming that the text meets minimal requirements of fit, there is no need for extensive rewriting.

When new material is needed the teacher should *substitute* it for what is in the book. The tendency is always to write new material and still use the text's. Strasheim (27) states that, "Teachers add, but they do not replace or subtract; their materials, much to the students' disgust, are merely 'piled on top of' an already overwritten basic text." Editing or deleting material is an effective form of adaptation, and the extent to which it is either necessary or desirable will vary from class to class even when the same teacher teaches parallel sections of the same course.

There is a limit to what we can change about a textbook, however. Rivers (16) writes that many decisions have already been made for us in a textbook. These bear on content (what or how much learning is to be undertaken), on approach (how learning takes place), and on skills (which ones are to be given emphasis). If all of these decisions are taken in consequence of having selected a textbook, how can the materials be usable in their entirety, given the circumstances, goals, emphases, and varying student populations in the individual teacher's classes? Crucial decisions about implementation remain. These will involve not only some substitution but also some deletion.

Deletion of material is justified in yet another way. Both publishers and authors are wary of leaving anything out, lest they lose potential clients. Even insignificant points can find their way into a text in the name of completeness. This suggests an analogy between many texts and those automobiles that come equipped with all available options—decor groups, air conditioning, lighted ashtrays, power windows, and so forth. Coupled with this is the tendency of teachers to use all the available material, whether it meets program goals or not. Our analogy would argue that if all cars have an ashtray, all drivers have to smoke.

Valdman (25) adds his support to the notion that texts are overwritten when he points out that "The number of features selected for presentation at any level is overwhelming, and far beyond the capabilities of the learners to 'cognize,' let alone internalize." He adds that "What is considered a single structure in current syllabuses turns out to be very complex." This further overburdens the student. To solve these types of problems, he proposes a reevaluation of the design and preparation of teaching materials, and the modification of classroom practices. He endorses the concept of reducing the number of grammatical features as proposed by Belasco (2) from the forty to fifty now taught *actively* to a much smaller number, the remainder to be taught passively. Valdman also proposes more research on the analysis of student errors as a means to determine "a more appropriate sequencing of linguistic units," and greater tolerance of student errors: "Either students are allowed to deviate from target-language norms during natural or simulated speech, or the goal of communicative competence is abandoned . . . . Not only is the learner expected to perform as well as a native speaker, but he is required to speak 'better,' that is, to conform to careful if not stilted middle-class usage."

Wilkins (28) and others like Harlow (9) and McKay (13) propose another solution to the problems of adaptation: a functional-notional syllabus, in which the ideas that learners need to express and the functional acts they expect to communicate successfully together determine the organization of the course material. The materials are therefore presented to the student with units on asking questions, expressing opinions, and so forth, rather than on a series of grammatically determined points. This approach claims to teach language as it is used: in its active, involved context and as a practical means of communication.

Program goals and text adaptation

We have seen that there is much to be said about general ways and means to adapt text materials. We can eliminate, reorder, supplement, or substitute material. But there are questions yet to be addressed: On what basis do we make changes, and what changes should we make? In order to answer these we must return to program goals, for there are no other criteria we can use to evaluate or adapt materials.

Many people have written recently about communicative competence (Savignon, 18, 19; Rivers, 17; Brumfit, 4; Higgs and Clifford in chapter four of this volume), and while complete agreement on the precise meaning of the term and on how to achieve it does not exist, understanding and speaking the target language are certainly components of any definition. By way of a concluding example of adaptation, let us imagine the planning that goes into a beginning course for American students in which communicative competence is a primary goal.

Approximately half of the class meetings will be devoted to more or less traditional instruction on phonetics, morphology, and syntax. The rest of the time will be spent developing communicative skills. When we look for a text we are disappointed, for in choosing the goal we have, we find ourselves rather ahead of the field as far as materials design and development is concerned. Even when texts express goals that seem compatible with our own, we find that their recommended activities hold little promise. We finally choose a text, even though it scores, say, 75% on Tucker's evaluation form (24).

The text has plenty of structural exercises—enough to do in class and to assign for homework—and they are well graded. The language of the dialogues is natural and appropriate enough. There are too many reading passages, especially later in the book, and they are not particularly appropriate to our purposes, dealing as they do primarily with historical or literary themes. There is little practice of phonetics, and worst of all for us, there are very few communication exercises. We constantly remind ourselves that this text was selected—if only by default—as having been the best one available. Now what do we do?

The grammatical material is nominally acceptable. Nothing beyond the normal adapting will be needed here. We will use some exercises in class and assign others. Some will be skipped, or used only to challenge the advanced students. The other areas, however, have serious problems. Phonetics must be strengthened, most of the readings as such must be discarded, meaningful writing practice is needed, and truly communicative activities must be invented.

There are many sources other than the traditional ones such as readers, realia, films, slides, tapes, records, and so forth, all of which are taken up in the following chapter of this volume. Other texts are also a possible source of material, although their use is not without risk due to inevitable mismatches in sequencing, vocabulary usage, and in general approach. Such materials, if borrowed directly, can do more harm than good, and yet extensive adaptation of them may require an unreasonable amount of time and effort. It is thus better to adapt exercise *types* rather than to borrow material as is. Such generalized borrowing is ultimately easier and faster to do, and is much less likely to infringe on copyright laws.

For communicative activities, we take a beginning conversation text and select topics that later will be adjusted to students' interests, their active vocabulary, and so forth. We also modify existing material from our own text, using some of the structural exercises we had discarded earlier for new purposes. Pattern practices are easily remodeled into sets of meaningful questions that form the basis for some early communicative activities. Such adaptation has the advantage of retaining a familiar set of vocabulary.

Reading and writing activities are dealt with simultaneously by using stories from foreign magazines and newspapers. While we avoid topics that demand extensive knowledge of facts outside the selection itself, the linguistic difficulty of the passage is not crucial. For the passage to be comprehensible, it is enough to match its general level to the level of our students' abilities. Something that contains a few subjunctives need not be eliminated from consideration, for example. The writing activities are an extension of the readings. We avoid mere rewriting of the passage in favor of having students contribute real (i.e., personal) information in an authentic communication setting.

In these ways we adapt available materials and shape them to suit our own needs. The result is unique to each course or section, since much of the adapting can take place only after we have met and gotten to know our students' interests, their strengths, and their weaknesses.

Conclusion

In order to take maximum advantage of textbooks, nothing is more helpful than having a clear picture of what a textbook is and what it is not, or perhaps cannot be. The most general advice in this regard is to see yourself and your text as partners in the teaching/learning enterprise. Fundamentally, your job is to provide what the textbook fails to provide. The following are important steps in formulating your decision-making procedures:

- The process of writing a textbook is not analogous to that of teaching a class. There are many forces at work that make the two quite different.
- Without a precise understanding of course and program goals, choosing a text is a meaningless exercise.
- The goals of a particular course are not likely to be the same as those of a text. As a matter of fact, to find such a text would be a stroke

of amazing good fortune. Even a carefully selected text improves only slightly the teacher's chances of getting a close fit between class and text goals.

- Goal statements in texts do not necessarily reflect the text's true content. Lofty goals are often stated, but are not directly addressed. Part of your task in choosing a text is to discover the actively pursued goals of the text under consideration.
- Many texts contain a superabundance of material. You must not be fearful about deleting material that does not directly advance course and program goals.
- When teachers or text authors make pedagogical decisions, they are often exercising a personal bias by substituting their own biases for others'.

In dealing with the textbook as curriculum, the best attitude to adopt is a blend of healthy skepticism and activist boldness. The skepticism aids in selecting a textbook: strongly question every assertion made by the author and be sure the text fits course and program goals as well as possible. The boldness is then needed to modify, supplement, or otherwise adapt the selected text to make it conform even better to your own needs and to those of your students.

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2

Breaking the Book Barrier

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Prologue: A case for reaching beyond the book

Sandra's seen a leprechaun,
Eddie touched a troll,
Laurie danced with witches once,
Charlie found some goblin's gold.
Donald heard a mermaid sing,
Susy spied an elf,
But all the magic I have known
I've had to make myself. (15)

"Open your books to page 45 . . . ."

Several years ago while preparing lessons for a substitute teacher I saw this disturbing pattern in my lesson plans from the previous two weeks:

—p. 45 Ex B, C.
—Reading. Questions pp. 49–52.
—Vocabulary p. 27.
—p. 106 workbook.
—Homework: pp. 54–55, Ex C, D, E.

The other nine lessons for the same class went on in exactly the same way.

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I defined my method at that time as "book clutching." The materials in the book might have been interesting and effective, but obviously they were not being used to best advantage. This reminded me that I was not getting the results I wanted; my philosophy of language learning and my goals of true communication with cultural awareness seemed like some vague ideal once believed in but apparently abandoned.

However, a few exciting things that were happening hinted at reaching toward those early goals. They occurred at the beginning of a class when a few personal matters like how Susan broke her arm or why John was always sleepy were discussed. Once a student drew some posters illustrating a dialogue. It was fun to remember the dialogue by looking at the pictures. Always at holiday times there were special classes to discuss the holiday and to do puzzles with the new vocabulary. These had been the only variations from "pp. 37–39, Ex. D, C," and I had planned none of them.

Following this experience I felt a strong motivation to change: to reassess my philosophy of teaching and learning, to reestablish the goal of communication with cultural awareness, and to shift from book clutching to more exciting and effective methods. In short, I vowed to make some magic. Since these few positive experiences had all involved "supplementary" materials and activities, over the years I incorporated carefully chosen supplementary materials and activities into my lessons to help students learn the concepts contained in the textbook.

Introduction

This chapter is intended to reaffirm the need for teachers to use whatever is within their reach to meet the needs of their students. As such, it does not provide totally new or revolutionary ideas in the area of supplementary materials and activities. Nor is it merely a cookbook of ideas. Rather, it contains concrete suggestions for identifying who is learning, what is to be learned, and how best to supplement available materials when that seems necessary. The ideas reflect an underlying philosophy that starts with the learners and proceeds from there. Among the questions that are addressed are:

- How can we discover how students learn?
- What relationships should teachers establish with their students?
- How can we match learning styles with teaching methods?
- What is meant by supplementing?
- When should teachers supplement?
- What makes supplementary materials and activities effective?
- Where do supplementary materials come from?
- How does supplementing relate to individualized instruction, grouping, and whole-class presentations?

The learner

The most crucial element to consider in asking how best to teach is "Who are the learners?" What are their ages, interests, needs, abilities, and motivations? What is the group size, the physical environment? Stevick (17) suggests that what goes on "inside and between people in the classroom" is far more important to success than materials, techniques, and linguistic analysis. He believes that the view of the language student as a "whole learner" is preferable and more constructive than one that considers him or her merely a combination of language aptitude, learning style, vocational aspirations, and so on:

> Teaching and learning are two men sawing down a tree. One pulls and then the other. Neither pushes, and neither could work alone, but cutting comes only when the blade is moving toward the learner.
>
> At least that's how it should be. If the teacher pulls while the learner is still pulling, they work against each other and waste their strength. If in her zeal to help the learner, the teacher pushes, then the blade will buckle, rhythm will be broken, both will become disheartened.

Hosenfeld (8) says that "What is needed is a reversal of our thinking about the instructional process. Instead of initially focusing upon the teaching act (or language stimulus) and viewing learning as adapting to this act, we should . . . view teaching as adapting to learning." We need to be much more aware of our students' psychological needs. Stevick (17) explains this by suggesting steps that teachers can take toward establishing productive relationships with their students. First, teachers can observe their students and be alert to inner information as it becomes available (e.g., their attitudes toward the speakers of the target language, or toward language study in general). Second, in an effort to use this information effectively, teachers can evaluate lesson plans and class activities in terms of the "control" that they impose versus the "initiative" that students exercise. Third, teachers can create a sense of community in which all elements—students, subject matter, and the teacher—are mutually supportive. Fourth, teachers can give off "good vibes." These are indications of confidence in themselves and their students, of acceptance, and of pleasure in the encounter. Fifth, teachers can occasionally leave their role and become "an ordinary person" in order to encourage spontaneity and creativity. Finally, teachers can encourage students to comment freely on their reactions to the class and the target language, on what works for them and what doesn't, on what pleases and what bores them, on how they feel about the language and its speakers, and on their fears and frustrations.

Most students are enthusiastic but at the same time cautious about studying a foreign language. Most agree they are studying in order to learn to understand and speak the language, and they find it exciting to develop a genuine feeling for the speakers of the target language (14). Therefore, every lesson should bear these student-generated goals in mind. If in the process of learning vocabulary associated with family relationships, the assumption is made that students will learn it first in order to understand people, materials, or media that discuss this topic, and later to be able to talk with each other and with native speakers about their own feelings and perceptions, then things will proceed more smoothly. Even in the case of one small step in this process, the presentation of drills, when students put only a small part of themselves into it, the drill is less likely to go dead on them. The following example, taken from a text, is dull:

Change the personal nouns to pronouns:

John is giving the book to Mary.	He is giving her the book.
Sally is lending the pencil to John.	She is lending him the pencil.
Mr. Jones is returning the tests to the students.	He is returning the tests to them.

With a box of objects including items that belong to the students, they themselves can give, lend, and return things to classmates in something resembling a real situation, while other students observe and report. The use of real objects, student interaction, and personal experiences all help students feel secure, and help them fill their need to apply what they are learning. This is supplementation in its simplest form.

How do students learn?

Discovering how students learn is imperative in choosing activities and materials. There are studies that are perhaps not definitive but do provide some ways of looking at the learner and do offer a few labels that can help teachers in this difficult job. Lepke (9) has compiled an excellent review of several recent studies, including the following:

- Carl Reinert's *ELSIE (Edmonds Learning Style Identification Exercise)*, which emphasizes the learner's preferred method of adopting and internalizing words.
- Joseph Hill's *Cognitive Style Interest Inventory*, which examines the interacting influences of communicative symbols, sensory experiences, and programmatic cues.
- Anthony Papalia's *Learning Modalities and Individual Differences Inventories*, which compares a student's self-assessment of his cognitive preferences with the teacher's observation.
- David Hunt's *Paragraph Completion Method*, which probes the learner's conceptual maturity level.
- Dunn, Dunn, and Price's *Learning Style Inventory*, which is designed

to analyze the influences of environmental, emotional, sociological, and physical stimuli in determining individual learning patterns.

Self evaluation is also helpful. Two useful questionnaires are:

- Rebecca de García and Sue Reynolds' foreign language attitude survey (4), which aids teachers in exploring their own attitudes and beliefs about foreign-language learning and teaching.
- Anthony Papalia's "Inventory of Teaching Styles: A Self-Profile for Self-Analysis" (13), which aids in identifying teachers' beliefs about language teaching and uncovering the assumptions that teachers make about how students learn.

Although surveys and questionnaires are helpful for teachers to discover more about how their students learn, informal encounters are much more useful. A half hour of informal conversation can provide great insight. This is difficult to do, but it can save time in the long run. One student who was thought to be lazy failed math, English, and French in the first quarter. During the second quarter, at a social gathering, his mother mentioned that he had starred in the last three children's theater productions and that although he tested on grade level in reading, he often had difficulty learning his lines. Knowing this, his mother had helped him memorize lines by reading them to him aloud. He needed only to hear each line twice to memorize it. Based on this new information on the learner, arrangements were made for an advanced student to read to him. His own reading and analytical ability improved and he got an A in French. Other students who were not so strongly oriented in this way also benefited from this technique.

Matching learning styles with teaching methods

There are as many ways to learn and to teach as there are learners and teachers, and making a compatible match is an extremely difficult matter. But as Frechette (7) has shown, if we are to improve the educational system and make it available to more of our students, we must seek out ways to identify individual differences and alternative methodologies that will accommodate them.

Matching learning and teaching styles is necessary for each aspect of the teaching/learning process. One critical element that must be considered is the textbook, since it is the same for all students. No matter how good a textbook is, it can only be a tool in the hands of the teacher, a guide to the content and sequence of the teaching process. A textbook indirectly recommends—and unfortunately dictates to some—a particular methodology. While every textbook has some valuable drills, exercises, explanations, and readings, none will be suitable to every teacher's needs. One of the first steps every teacher takes, consciously or unconsciously, is to choose which parts of a lesson to drop, combine, or emphasize. The book is a good or a poor tool insofar as the teacher is able to link it to the learning processes of the students. This linking process is at the heart of what we are calling supplementing.

What is meant by supplementing?

If supplementing is accepted as one means of linking together the learner and the teaching mode, then it will include identifying ways to teach what the book, syllabus, county guide, and the teacher's professional judgment all say should be learned, as well as specific ways of matching the course content with a pedagogical approach. Furthermore, as a link, supplementary materials and activities constitute an integrated part of the program. Morrow and Strasheim (12) imply as much in the following set of questions:

- Does the learning activity meet a teaching and/or learning need?
- Is the lesson an effort at personalization . . . ?
- Is this learning experience designed to motivate the student?
- Does the lesson serve to enrich or extend the students' experience of the target language and/or culture?

Adherence to the criteria implied in these questions aids in avoiding widespread and harmful misconceptions and allows us to interpret and deal constructively with the buzz-word solutions that continually sweep the profession: direct method, Silent Way, cloze, global/international, functional-notional, community language learning . . . . With these basic criteria in mind, supplementary activities and materials are not random, isolated ideas. They emerge from a sound theoretical and philosophical basis. What is to be learned is determined by examining the text and the syllabus. Then a decision can be made about what must be added, adapted, replaced, or eliminated.

When should teachers supplement?

The need to supplement arises whenever important program goals are not being realized, even though the basic text and accompanying materials are being used appropriately. A convenient way to keep track of relevant goals in context is in the form of a list of learning objectives for each chapter or unit. Sula (20) points out that objectives must be very concrete and must state explicitly the type of performance expected of the students, the conditions under which performance will be evaluated, and the criteria that will determine successful realization of the objective. To grow in the ability to supplement successfully requires a thorough study of techniques as well as constant willingness to read and do research, to change, to experiment, and to evaluate. Success requires that even the most creative teachers lengthen their stride.

Prior to teaching any lesson, teachers must first study the material to be presented. Stevick (17) recommends a simple but useful way of analyzing the content of a lesson: "Content may be inventoried from a linguistic point of view: what words and what structures does the lesson contain? A second point of view is social: who might use this kind of language in talking with whom? A third point of view is topical: what is being talked about?" If teachers inventory each of these perspectives, they can keep the structures constant and supplement the vocabulary, or keep the content constant but change the social setting, or otherwise manipulate the material. The following steps constitute a strategy for preparing a lesson with a view toward identifying a need to supplement:

- Outline the chapter from a linguistic, social, and topical perspective.
- Decide on review materials and select points for emphasis, anticipating their appearance in future chapters.
- Devise a theme, and build each day's lesson around it.
- Plan a culminating activity that relates to the theme.
- Identify the parts of the chapter that are usable as is.
- Adapt or skip material that is inappropriate.
- Locate other materials that have exercises, readings, pictures, games, songs, etc. that relate to the chapter outline.
- Find pictures, films, slides, records, tapes, or people that relate to the outline.
- Choose supplementing activities from these possibilities, keeping in mind the needs of the students.
- Allocate time for teaching the chapter, and plan each class.

Applying the strategy

Supplementary materials and activities can be used during every phase of the instructional program. For the *presentation* of materials and demonstration of basic concepts, an overhead projector focuses interest. Illustrations reproduced without captions or with an overlay are usually more effective than an English translation.

For *reinforcement*, games that are simple but that use repetitive language are painless ways to learn. For example, a student places a set of noun picture cards on the chalk tray under the right determiner. To keep time, which will determine the winner, the rest of the class counts off in numbers, hours, days, or months. While attention is on the game, individuals practice noun genders and the class practices numbers, days, hours, or months.

For *personalization*, the class comes alive as students are asked real questions like, "Which do you like better, beans or carrots? Tall or short boys? Straight or curly hair?" The practice of *aimer bien* or *gustar* becomes secondary to the information being exchanged.

For *confirmation,* teachers can encourage interdisciplinary participation as an extension of classroom learning in the form of cultural activities, community study projects, and interdisciplinary and global awareness lessons (6). These draw together all phases of the learning experience and make them relevant:

- Exchange presentations on the metric system with the math department.
- Offer videotaped miniculture dialogues or presentations to social studies classes.
- Teach folk dances, their historical background, and necessary vocabulary to physical education classes.
- Arrange for a social studies student and a foreign-language student to spend a weekend at the home of a foreign person in the area, perhaps to help with babysitting or housekeeping. Have them report on their linguistic and cultural experiences in both classes.
- Encourage teachers in other subject areas to let you and your students share any oral or written reports on a country where the target language is spoken.
- Set up a career center in the library. Request the help of a guidance counselor and a librarian.
- Sponsor a logo contest. Make a presentation to art, foreign-language, and English classes on signs and symbols of language.
- Teach cross-cultural gestures to groups of students in language arts, drama, and social studies classes. Teach verbal expressions that accompany the gestures.
- Present a lesson on cognates and loan words to the English class.
- Use miniculture dialogues or original dialogues for street theater. Present it in the halls or at lunch. Demonstrate culture shock to students about to take a trip to a foreign country by working with the drama department. Include a cultural event that involves food, clothing, music, interpersonal relationships, gestures, and language.

For *homework assignments* to be stimulating, they should involve interviews, making things, playing games, watching TV. A heavy diet of written exercises as homework enjoys a low priority on the students' agenda.

For a *learning center,* carefully arranged materials facilitate small-group and individual activities and increase the ways available for students to learn. Strauber (19) describes the specific makeup of vocabulary, grammar, conversation, listening, reading, and culture stations: what kinds of materials are needed and how to use them in extended or limited ways.

Since supplementing can be part of every aspect of the learning program, careful planning of where and when to supplement is a must. Figure 1 is a lesson plan for one week. It shows how using a variety of learning modes—whole-group, small-group, and individual activities—with options for a final product or display provides a system for including a wide range of supplementary activities tailored to fit the needs of the learners.

BASIC CONCEPT: PAST TENSE

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Large Group Describe content and objectives. Read "The House that Jack Built." Explain the past tense concept. Practice drills (relevant to the student). Do a listening recognition exercise (use signals to indicate past vs. present tense). *Small Groups* Make/use flashcards. Listen to drill tape. Do a study sheet.	*Large Group* Correct study sheets. Play a game with flashcards prepared by Monday's small group. Do student-directed drill. Give a 10 pt. quiz similar to the study sheet. Play charades using past tense expressions.	*Large Group* Share past tense picture. Watch a filmstrip/movie on "Sundays in the Other Culture." Read a selection containing past tense – answer questions. *Small Groups* Do student-directed drill. Write and conduct an interview. Prepare a cultural minidrama on Sunday activities to be videotaped Friday and shared with social studies.	*Large Group* Give explanation of test to be given Friday. Review concept and objectives. *Individuals* *Choose activity: worksheets tapes games. (Some are assigned.) *Small Groups* Teacher-directed concept review and drills. Correct and review interviews. Practice cultural minidramas. *Large Group* Share interviews.	*Large Group* Give test. Present and video tape cultural miniunit on: American vs. other culture on Sundays. Setting: *Last* Sunday (lots of use of past tense).
Individual Homework or Learning Center Assignments				
Finish study sheet. Listen to cassette explanation of concept. Prepare to be a teacher for a drill.	Find or draw pictures to add to the past tense picture file.	Finish reading. Complete interviews.	Review for test.	

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*Assignments can be chosen or assigned.

Figure 1. A one-week lesson plan

Choosing and using supplementary materials and activities

Even the best texts give only a skeletal outline of the linguistic, social, and topical contents of a chapter. The teacher is responsible for the rest of the procedures used in analyzing and preparing the chapter. For example, the outline for Unit XII of the A-LM French text (1) lists four new and two review grammar items and six content areas: colors, clothes, numbers from 80–100, shopping, the French monetary system, and the French school system. Beyond this listing, teachers are on their own. What are some possibilities for putting more life into this lesson?

- A-LM sound filmstrip *Un lecteur americain.*
- Shopping spree, using real bills and receipts collected on a trip to France. Give students a card with buying and selling vocabulary and play money, along with real objects and pictures.
- Board game, made from a piece of cardboard. A version that can be played during class has a set of 25 cards with instructions written in the target language. The game ends when all the cards are used.
- Flea market, with all labels in the target language.
- Fashion show with the home economics department. It can be given outside, and a café can be set up for refreshments.
- *Un boulevard de Paris,* in cooperation with the art department. Students decorate a hall to represent a street in Paris.
- *Oui, si, ou non,* in which a student's clothing is described accurately but in negative terms, accurately and in positive terms, and inaccurately. Students guess who is being described.
- Collage, made of names of specialty stores taken from French magazines, with items available from the stores.

Of course, not all activities must be used every time this lesson is taught, nor is it necessary that all students participate in all activities sequentially. Select activities in response to class needs, available time, or special interests of individual students.

Combining lessons into units

A more elaborate planning procedure combines two or three chapters into a single unit. Morrow and Strasheim (12) show how a group of high school teachers combined three chapters dealing with the future tense: "About twenty-five vocabulary words are chosen from the three chapters for active learning. The teachers rewrite the oral question-answer section to include all the possible subjects, the future tense, *and* the new vocabulary items. The family dialogue . . . is replaced either by a unit on daily life which incorporates the new words and the future tense, or by student-made dialogues which achieve the same end. To give students a break in the routine, songs in which the new tense is featured prominently are learned. The replacement unit achieves several results. The integral grammatical structures and vocabulary are continued and ready the student for further work in the text, the basic textual format is followed, there is some original work by the students, and music adds a new dimension to the textual materials. What is more important, the replacement unit thus formed is taught in about one-third of the time needed to teach the three chapters individually."

I have characterized supplementary materials and activities as a link between learning styles and teaching styles. A general checklist of supplementary materials and activities might include the following:

MATERIALS

people
maps
films/slides/filmstrips
drawings
realia
photos
cartoons
radio
advertisements
newspapers
magazines
audiotapes
videotapes
flannel boards
magnetic cards
puzzles

ACTIVITIES

cultural units
interdisciplinary events
conversation groups
weekend language camps
debates
contests
fairs
games
role playing
questionnaires
sing-alongs
workshops
minicourses
interviews
fashion shows
plays/skits

These general activities become increasingly specific as the teacher recognizes that certain sections of the textbook need clarification or revitalization. Mollica (11) gives a "limited compendium" of successful suggestions.

As ideas are collected it is helpful to make a card file (Figure 2) of various techniques and resources.

GLOBAL: Levels 1-3. Possible lessons Bk. 1, II
CULTURAL: " " Bk. 2, V, XX

Designed for interdisciplinary workshop (2 hours)

Use four study sheets and a student-made slide show to teach cross-cultural gestures to groups of students in language arts, drama, and social studies. Create minidramas using the gestures and some foreign expressions that accompany them. (See "Gestures" and "Idioms.")

Figure 2. Sample from card file of ideas

For each idea, decide one or two categories and note them at the top left. Note the applicable level for the activity and the chapter that it relates to in whatever text you are using. Cross reference the cards where possible. As the file grows, use color coding for levels and chapter designations.

Finding and making materials

There are many effective, commercially produced materials that can easily be adapted to a variety of needs. These materials should be inexpensive, simple, and ready to use. Records and tapes of popular and folk music are rather expensive and may not be worth purchasing. When a friend or colleague travels to a foreign country, ask him to bring back a popular record album. Do not invest a lot of money in these, however, because their popularity is very short-lived. Melpignano (10) suggests ways in which songs that have been popular over the years can be taught to upper-level classes as one would teach *explication de texte* for literature.

Linked letters, that is, toy letters that fit together like a jigsaw puzzle, are an inexpensive investment that can be used by students who learn by manipulating. They can be put into boxes by category and help students practice spelling. Magnetic tape is an expensive item, but is worth the cost in relation to its uses. Some chalkboards are magnetic, as are file cabinets or small pieces of sheet metal from hardware stores.

Commercial filmstrips, slides, or films are increasingly risky investments. Students have become sophisticated film critics because of the amount of television they watch. A film has to be technically excellent and its presentation professional for it to be accepted by the students. One way to put their own standards to the test is to encourage students to make and use their own slides, films, and videotapes.

Native-language children's books are normally not worth the money, unless the story is very familiar to the students, or unless the books are designed for preschool youngsters. Posters are usually free, and they add colorful decorations to the classroom.

The overhead projector facilitates class and small-group use of supplementary materials and activities in ways that no other machine can. In the world of true luxury, teachers who have access to a Thermofax machine have a gold mine of opportunities. Pens and other Thermofax materials are costly, but plastic sheets for writing on can be obtained from local hospitals in the form of exposed X rays, which are easily cleaned up. With a Thermofax and an overhead:

- Drills can be reproduced and manipulated for a large group by using two or three overlays in different colors. One plastic sheet can have the clues, one the answers, and one both.
- Pictures and cartoons are easily shared (watch for copyright infringements).

- Various points can be dealt with simultaneously by using a cover sheet.
- Silhouette images or stick figures drawn on small squares of plastic can be moved around to stimulate all types of responses.
- Homework, worksheets, or puzzle sheets can be corrected or worked on by groups of students.
- Culturally authentic pictures can be reproduced and projected.

Helpful and relatively inexpensive supplementary materials are available from the following companies, who will send catalogues on request:

- National Textbook Company
  8259 Niles Center Road
  Skokie, IL 60077
- Continental Book Company
  11-03 46th Avenue
  Long Island City, NY 11101
- American Language Teacher
  Advancement Press of
  America
  PO Box 17311
  Detroit, MI 48207
- Goldsmith's Audio Visuals
  A/V and Language Dept.
  301 E. Shore Road
  Great Neck, NY 11023
- ACTFL Materials Center
  385 Warburton Avenue
  Hastings-on-Hudson, NY
  10706
- Wible Language Institute
  24 S. 8th Street
  PO Box 870
  Allentown, PA 18105
- Gessler Publishing Co., Inc.
  220 E. 23rd Street
  New York, NY 10010
- André Paquette Associates
  149 Franklin Street
  Laconia, NH 03246
- Word Games
  PO Box 305
  Healdsburg, CA 95448
- J. Weston Walch
  Box 1075
  Portland, ME 04104

Perhaps the best materials and activities are those created by either the teacher or the students to fit the exact situation. It is easy to spend a great deal of money on items that could just as well be made by the students, thereby providing them with a learning activity. A crossword grid can be run off and the students can make up the words, or lettered tiles can be made out of cardboard so students can play a game similar to Scrabble. Sets of cards for certain vocabulary groups can also be easily made for students to use in games like "Go Fish." Teachers soon discover talented students who enjoy producing visual materials. Papier-mâché puppets can be made as a project with the art department. Students who have access to a jigsaw can make a calendar slot board and a clock with movable hands. Clocks can also be made from small paper plates and strips of cardboard. Tongue depressors are ideal for making sets of "flash sticks" or scrambled dialogues, or for matching questions and answers. Empty boxes, cans, and wrappers from the foreign country can be used for drills, dialogues, vocabulary exercises, or pronunciation practice. These have the advantage of being culturally authentic.

Students can make up anagrams or word-search games on particular themes such as household items, family members, or careers. These can be duplicated for class use or put into learning centers.

Local garage sales offer bargains on items that can be easily adapted to instructional needs. Doll houses, toys, magazines, and even gardening equipment can all find a place in the classroom.

Student-made posters of proverbs, tongue twisters, sayings, or horoscopes can be used for years. They benefit the students who make them and others as well, since they can be included in many different lessons. A wheel of fortune labeled with adjectives is an excellent class project which can also be used for years. To make one, cut either a board or a piece of heavy cardboard into a circle three feet in diameter. Divide up the circle into sections and write an adjective from some semantic set, say "feelings," in each section. Attach the circle to a divider or bulletin board with a bolt and washer so that it can turn. An arrow indicates the answer to questions such as, "How are you today?" or it can provide a stimulus to other more advanced constructions such as "Whenever I (name an action), I feel (adjective)." The adjective would be given, and the student would make up the "causative" sentence.

Individualization of instruction

It may be implicitly clear at this point that many of the justifications for supplementing materials and activities are virtually identical to those associated with individualized instruction, especially when supplementing is defined as linking learning styles with teaching styles. In fact, one of the happiest results of routinely seeking out ways to supplement is that you get used to thinking first about what will help your students learn better. This in turn sensitizes you to your students' needs, expressed or unexpressed. Once your focus shifts from "How can I teach this?" to "How can I help my students learn this?" you have become not only a confirmed supplementer, but a committed individualizer as well. Every time you present the same content through a variety of activities, you account for different learning styles. When you make this variety of activities available simultaneously rather than sequentially, you have individualized instruction. Consider all the ways to help students learn possessive constructions. Students can:

- Hear them explained.
- Read about them in another textbook.
- Do exercises with the teacher, alone, or in small groups.
- Do written exercises from the book, workbook, or worksheets.
- Use pictures of things people own.
- Make up or find readings with lots of possessive structures.
- Write dialogues about who owns what and present these in class.

- Use or make overhead practice sheets alone, with the whole class, or in small groups.
- Make up or play a card game that shows pictures of people and things.
- Play grab bag, in which students identify the owners of objects drawn from a box, and then return them to their owners.

The ability to provide an activity compatible with each student's needs at the moment is one of the greatest benefits of systematic supplementing.

Nine steps for making your own magic

Knowing as much as you can about your students and choosing the right combination of basic text, supplementary materials, and activities are all part of making your own magic. The following set of procedures will help you to collect and combine ingredients to suit your unique situation.

Step 1. Identify the concept to be taught. This is determined by the book, syllabus, county or state guide, your needs, and the needs of your students.

Step 2. Specify the terminal objectives so that you will know exactly what you want your students to be able to do at the end of the lesson.

Step 3. Decide how to teach the concept. In many instances the text's approach is different from your own. Most textbooks stress grammar, slighting affective or personalized uses of the target language. In these cases a different approach can be used without abandoning the framework of the text's topical themes, vocabulary, or structures. The simplest way to supplement these materials is to personalize them. If the book's drill is

I lent the book to the boy.	I lent it to him.
Lend the book to the boys.	Lend it to them.

you can personalize it by using an object that belongs to one of your students and doing a question-answer drill followed by a directed discourse:

Did you lend this pen to George?	Yes, I lent it to him.
Jim, tell Alice to lend George her pen.	Alice, lend it to George.

This type of supplementation takes only a bit of imagination, but it is one way to maintain the program sequence while achieving personal objectives. In their text, Stroller *et al.* (18) have French lessons based on linguistic structures that are immediately personalized. These can easily be adapted to other foreign languages.

Step 4. Identify the students' needs. This is where supplementing and individualization come together in planning a unit. The materials and activities you pick for helping students learn any given concept will reflect your teaching style and the learning styles of your students. Therefore, the more you know about these styles the better chance you have of choosing the right ingredients. Although this process can be complicated and difficult, using just one small method of viewing student learning will provide insights. Dunn and Dunn (5) describe the impact of what they call "sociological elements" on the teaching/learning process. They point out that any given classroom population will include group-oriented, peer-guided, and adult-dependent students. Knowing each individual's place among these options makes it possible to mold the program around student learner preferences.

Step 5. Brainstorm as many ways as possible to get the results you desire. Make and maintain a card file of possibilities. Ideas will come from many sources: books, articles, research, colleagues, students, television, stores, art galleries, other departments, and so on. Tuttle (21) lists fifty activities that can be generated from just one set of pictures. For example:

- One student orally describes a picture for one minute to his or her partner.
- One student describes a picture orally to a partner, who then repeats the description, using the picture as an aid to recall.
- Two students look at a picture, then one looks away while the other student asks him questions about it.
- One student orally describes a picture to a second student who then draws a copy of it.
- While one student orally describes a picture, the other repeats the same thing but changes all subjects to the plural or singular and makes all other necessary grammatical changes.
- A student selects a picture and tells what the person's favorite sport or hobbies are, where he does them, and how he does them.
- A student writes out a description of a picture and then omits at least one word per sentence which he puts at the bottom of the page. The other student then replaces the omitted words in the paragraph.
- Two students see how many different ways they can rearrange three pictures to tell different stories.

Step 6. Select the ingredients. One thing that becomes evident in determining learning styles and finding compatible teaching strategies is that a variety of presentation techniques must often be used. One of these could be a contract or a packet system built around stated objectives. A lab activity sheet can also complement the more traditional approach.

Step 7. Plan the time. Time is yours to use, not to fill. Be sure that the trade-off in time spent on a project is worth it. If it takes twenty minutes to set up and explain a game and ten minutes to play it, but it can only be played once because it is so task-specific, then it is a poor investment. If, however, it takes two hours to find or make the materials for a game, and five minutes to explain it, and it can be played many times with different variations using ever more comprehensive levels of the target language, the investment is sound.

Often the very idea of adding one more thing to the material that has to be taught seems overwhelming. This perception misses the point of one of the major benefits of supplementing: By presenting the same material in a variety of ways, we can reach the learning objectives more quickly. In a chapter of *Son et Sens* (22), for example, one of the objectives includes understanding, using orally, reading, and writing French *-er* verbs in the present tense. One way of reaching these objectives in a relatively short time is to start with what looks like a final presentation and works backward.

With a set of overhead pictures, the students hear the story of "My Day." The next day the students reconstruct the story as "Your Day" and then "Our Day." The third day, small groups tell each other the story as "His (Her, Their) Day." On the fourth day, they also read the story with different subjects, noting spelling changes in the verb forms. This approach, plus some exercises from the book, a brief clarification of verb endings, and a verb-form game takes approximately fifteen minutes a day for four days of the week. By the fifth day, students are ready to take a test which covers pronunciation, comprehension and reading, and the written verb forms. Covering the same material as presented in the book (which begins with a lengthy grammatical explanation that the students can just as well read at home) would take at least two hours more of practice—both in and out of school—and because the text places such heavy emphasis on writing and spelling, the objectives for listening comprehension and speaking might not have been given adequate time. The first approach also leads to an immediate application, as the students are then asked to keep a daily journal based on the pattern of "My Day." The time saved is available for reinforcing, expanding, and applying the new knowledge. Thus supplementing is by no means always an additive process. Knowing what to omit or reduce is as important as knowing what to add.

Step 8. Be ready to let go. Each learning activity that you plan determines whether to have large groups, small groups, or individual activities. By considering the best format for presentation, you focus your attention on the amount of learning rather than the amount of teaching (8). Grouping—or individualizing—is usually a frightening prospect for people who have never done it. Yet, if we recognize the diversity of learning styles, abilities, and interests among students, we must at least occasionally break away from our role as director. Curran (3) describes the use of small-group interactions not only as an effective teaching technique, but as an essential human need and a crucial part of creating a secure learning environment.

Teachers who are fearful of letting go can start gradually, with one or two attempts each week. Pick an activity in which you have clear, simple objectives. Have only groups which are working on the same objectives.

Slavin (16) has devised a grouping system that is very effective for some learning tasks. The teacher divides the class into groups of four. Each group has one outstanding and independent student, one low achiever, and two average students. In each twenty-minute segment, the groups are given some learning task, and group members help each other to master it. At the end of the twenty minutes, the students take individual tests, and a cumulative score is awarded to each group. These scores serve as points in a two- or three-week contest. By approaching grouping techniques slowly in this way, teachers can begin to realize the benefits of students teaching students. This in turn helps in realizing that students do want to learn and will do so on their own if given proper guidance. Individuals leave their group to work on other assignments as they demonstrate mastery of a particular task. This means that they do not have to sit through more drill and explanation just because a few others have not yet met the objective. Learning centers, workbooks, and packets are ways to handle simultaneous learning activities within the same class. The only rule necessary is that no student may do anything that interferes with another student's learning.

Step 9. Savor the magic. Providing a bit of the best from several systems, and presenting each concept from varying perspectives in response to the competing needs of the students creates a whole greater than the sum of its parts. Few experiences rival the satisfaction of seeing students grow in their knowledge and understanding of themselves, the target language, and the culture of its speakers. The careful, well-reasoned use of supplementary materials and activities makes that satisfaction available to all of us.

Blending supplementation and individualization

To show how everything we have been discussing comes together in practice, we will assume a typical class and a typical lesson, and see what sorts of considerations aid in determining our teaching strategies and tactics. We are dealing with a class of twenty-five second-year language students, and a lesson that presents twenty vocabulary words and ways to make questions using interrogative words and inversion. The theme of the lesson is "places" (theater, stadium, bakery, opera house, and so on). The learning objectives are:

- To identify 90% of the places with the foreign-language name when presented with a picture.
- To ask ten questions at native conversational speed when presented orally with twelve answer clues.
- To describe what the twenty places are like in the foreign country, by providing three facts per place.

An analysis of the students' abilities, needs, and interests has resulted in these divisions:

Group A: One student, who will know the material already. She is working at her own pace through the book with a packet as a guide.

Group B: Five, who are independent and analytical. They will master the material after a general presentation and review of pronunciation. They will need some immediate ways to utilize the new material.

Group C: Three, who can memorize the new vocabulary quickly if they see pictures. They are peer-guided, and function best when working with one another. One from this group will also need to write out his own flashcards, since this is the way he learns vocabulary best. As for learning to form questions, these three fit in with the preceding group, and need only an explanation and some immediate application.

Group D: Six, who are strongly visual-perceptive. They will need a step-by-step explanation plus audio and visual clues. Seeing the material written and practicing with writing will help them to learn it orally. They should have worksheets, games, and puzzles in order to understand the concepts.

Group E: Seven, who are rote learners. They will learn the vocabulary with repetition, pictures, writing, and extensive individual practice with a tutor or partner. They handle concrete and formal operations best. Games and contests usually motivate them more than other activities. After the week-and-a-half allotted to the lesson, they will have a general idea about how to ask questions, but they will need review before being able to apply the material spontaneously.

Group F: Two, who are indifferent learners, and for whom life begins only after school is out. They will acquire most of the vocabulary by doing a puzzle with one of the members of another group. They will learn how to ask questions if their personal needs are immediately met in doing so, but they will not know that there is a pattern to question formation. They are able, but immature. They need help in learning how to learn. Adcock (2) describes this group—most prevalent among middle schoolers—as being capable of "exploring and selecting learning materials and experiences on their own. To an increasing degree they can . . . assume responsibility for their own learning, independent of teacher control." Lectures are wasted on them. Still, they can be quite analytical when presented with a puzzle, especially if there is an element of competition involved.

Group G: One, who will refuse to learn. He has learning problems caused by psychological needs exhibited in unacceptable behavior patterns. His disruptive behavior can be minimized by our observing carefully when he responds positively and later creating as many of these positive activities as possible. He will steal precious time unless he has a task that provides immediate, positive results. We will give him an answer sheet and ask him to place on the board all the answers that the others will use to correct their assignments.

In search of supplementary materials and activities

Brainstorming ideas for possible ways to reach our objectives with this set of students suggests the following supplementary materials and activities:

1 Make a learning packet detailing objectives and procedures.
2 Put question-answer drills from the book on an overhead, and use small pictures and symbols to clue the answers and questions.
3 Make a map of a town. Separate the places so a label can be placed on the location.
4 Make question cards and answer cards. Distribute these to the class for them to call out or line up matches. Make this a game for small-group learning.
5 Select tape drills. Use a set of pictures to accompany drills.
6 Make or adapt five work sheets on forming questions. Use different styles of presentation. These can involve copying elements of the sentence and rewriting, sentences to unscramble, anagrams, questions cued by pictures, and answers for which questions must be formed.
7 Have students scan foreign-language magazines for pictures of stores and items to purchase. Have them make collages from old magazines with a picture of a store on one side and a collection of items to purchase there on the back. Students ask questions about each others' pictures.
8 Have students draw a map of a town. Make materials available in a learning center so that the maps will be as authentic as possible.
9 Have students write dialogues that take place at the places they have learned about. Be sure they include at least five questions and answers and use a culturally appropriate theme. Videotape the best ones.
10 Make available other textbooks from which students can select drills, exercises, or explanations about asking questions.
11 Take a field trip to a market or shop that has foreign food or other products. This can be assigned as a community study project for students to arrange themselves.
12 As a culminating activity, set up a flea market. Each student brings in two items labeled and priced in the foreign-language currency.

The last step in the planning process is to match as compatibly as possible the materials and activities with each of the groups. The following matches are promising, with the italicized numbers representing potentially the most fruitful matches:

Group A: 1, 9, 12, 13
Group B: 2, 3, 5, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13
Group C: 2, 5, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13
Group D: 2, 3, 4, 5, *6*, 8, 10, 11
12, 13
Group E: 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 12,
13
Group F: 2, 3, 4, 5, *6*, 7, 8, 11,
12, 13
Group G: 2, 3, 4, *7*, 8, 11, 12, 13

Conclusion

The classroom wherein the course begins on page one and proceeds relentlessly through the book is all too common. If for no other reason than that the textbook is the same for everyone who uses it and each student is unique, we must do something by way of adapting or supplementing materials and activities in order to include all of our students in the instructional process.

Every textbook has some material that can be assigned out of class or eliminated entirely and other material that is treated so briefly that students have no opportunity to internalize it. Probably no textbook provides sufficient practice in using the language actively and naturally; this may not even be a proper task for textbooks to assume. Teachers who take the textbook at face value risk turning off some of their students and robbing others of the opportunity to see both the target language and its speakers as vibrant, valuable, and exciting in their own right.

The secret to successful supplementing depends on a willingness to treat students as needful human beings and on a shifting of our perspective away from teaching and toward learning. In this way we truly direct the program to the students.

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3

The Push Toward Communication

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Introduction

It is significant that the title of this chapter is "The Push *Toward* Communication" and not "The Push *To* Communication," for the foreign-language profession as a whole has been remarkably unsuccessful at achieving the communicative goals that we and our student clients have established. Even so, our conspicuous lack of success is not for want of trying. In our earnestness to do all that we can to teach languages and to help others learn them, we have adopted many of the strategies and methodologies that have been proposed and defended over the years. The most recent buzz word to hypnotize the profession—and the one that will occupy our attention throughout this chapter—is *communicative competence.* We begin by commenting briefly on how this term seems to be used in the literature and on what assumptions it seems to be based. We then consider what some of the implications of these ideas may be for foreign-language instructors.

Communicative competence: A first look

One early use of the term *communicative competence* is in Dell Hymes's

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1972 work (8); Hymes argues that a complete characterization of a native speaker's use of his language must go beyond Chomsky's notion of linguistic competence (4) to include communicative competence as well. Hymes defines the latter term as consisting of the native speaker's intuitive knowledge of the linguistic rules of his language and also of his knowledge of the social rules—in the form of conventions, registers, and protocols—that define the total environment in which communication is to take place. Such knowledge of nonlinguistic rules includes, but surely is not limited to, matters of permissible physical contact between speakers; space requirements, which are typically different in different cultures; kinesics, that is, hand gestures, facial responses, and so on; and the proper management of verbal or nonverbal cues to suggest either that the listener is being attentive or is about to try to wrest control of the floor from his interlocutor. In brief, the speaker must not only know the linguistic rules of the language, but also how, when, and where to use them. Surely none of us would argue with the desirability of our students' possessing such knowledge.

At this point it is necessary to emphasize that Hymes—a sociolinguist and ethnologist of language—discusses the communicative competence possessed by native speakers as a close analogue to the linguistic competence posited by Chomsky. The assumption is that *both* systems are always in full operation during every communication event, not that one system alternates with, is subordinate to, or otherwise supplants the other.

In the context of foreign-language education, the name most closely associated with communicative competence is that of Sandra Savignon (13). She defines communicative competence as "the ability to function in a *truly* communicative setting, that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors." By a "*truly* communicative setting" Savignon means one in which "real" or "authentic" communication takes place, not one in which the teacher is doing a question/answer drill based on a story, a dialogue in the book, or on some other *ad hoc* data base from which the teacher already knows the answer, thereby rendering the exchange of information entirely unrealistic. What she means when she says that "linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input," however, is not immediately clear, since linguistic competence can scarcely adapt itself to anything. But in the section "Experimental Strategies" we read that ". . . students were urged to use every means at their disposal to understand and to make themselves understood. . . . [The] experimenter and the other fluent speakers . . . reacted to what was said, not to how it was said." From these and other sources in her study we conclude that what Savignon must mean in saying that "linguistic competence must adapt itself" is that the student should be ready to abandon the linguistic system *per se* of the target language and instead seek out other communication strategies for making himself understood. Schulz and Bartz (14) reiterate this point when they explain that ". . . meaning (what is being said) becomes the focal point; form becomes secondary."

What other sorts of strategies, then, might be available to the student? Galloway's fascinating study of communicative competence (7) reports that a group of "non-teaching Spanish speakers living in Spain, whose command of English ranged from 'none' to 'poor' . . . had a relatively easy time understanding a student who practically resorted to pidginization, accompanied by an abundance of gestures, to communicate." This group of raters—which represents perhaps the most crucial potential audience for our students—in fact gave this pidginizing student a slightly higher score for successful communication as defined in the study than did any of the other three groups of raters.

A broader perspective

There are several conspicuous lacunae in the foregoing discussions of communicative competence. For example, no detailed analysis is typically made of the *type* of linguistic functions (18) which the communicators are attempting to use; nor is there analysis of their *complexity* or of the *contexts* in which they presumably are framed. All of these areas are of extreme importance in assessing language competence. Instead, the apparent assumption is that the same communication skills that allow one to obtain food in a restaurant would also serve to negotiate a business contract or an international treaty. Furthermore, little consideration is given to the accuracy of the message conveyed in terms of the level of involvement and active cooperation of the hypothetical listener. Clearly, it is easier to order a meal than it is to convince a businessman through logical argumentation that his financial interests are best served by the firm or government one is representing.

Some have recognized this problem of accuracy but have addressed it in only the most general terms. John L. D. Clark (5) refers to ". . . the ability to get a message across . . . with specified ease and effect. . . ." although he specifies neither. In the Galloway study cited earlier, non-English-speaking raters give higher points to students who seemed to be struggling and judged more harshly those who appeared to be speaking with relative ease, at least while these students were attempting basic communication tasks. Galloway concludes that ". . . visible effort seems to be a valid criterion used by native speakers of Spanish in reacting to non-native speakers of the language—at least at this [second semester] stage of a learner's language development." From the other side of the effort issue, Terrell (15) says that students should be able to convey a message so that ". . . a native speaker interprets the response with little or no effort." This position shifts the burden of expenditure of effort from the speaker to the listener. However, "ease of interpretation" is a construct dependent on at least task, context, speaker identity, listener identity, and the complex web of social and psychological relationships that may exist between the latter two. While our European colleagues have been broadening the scope of their communication models (Munby, 11; Carroll, 2) to include variables such as purposive domain, task, setting, medium, mode, channel, tone, manner, delicacy, complexity, range of forms, and tolerance of linguistic and stylistic failure, most of us in the United States have ignored all these features of communication.

The question of how well one must perform in order to communicate successfully continues to be a matter of serious debate, but it appears that no one has asked why there should be such vigorous differences of opinion in this area. One reason may be that the discussants are working with restricted ranges of language proficiency and often base their opinions on totally different communicative tasks. The question that needs to be asked is not merely "Was the student able to communicate?" but "*What* was he able to communicate, and *how well*?" The *what* requires consideration of both the topic or context of the communication and of the language function that must be performed in that context. The *how well* entails judgments of linguistic accuracy and cultural authenticity. In restating the crucial evaluating questions in this way, we identify the three coexisting and interrelated hierarchies of judgmental criteria relating to the general categories of language function, content, and accuracy, all of which must be under the control of a competent communicator.

It is possible that in the academic setting the unconstrained range of possible language functions and content so typical of communication events in the outside world has not been seen as a serious issue. Perhaps this is because the limited curriculum and communicative environments traditionally associated with college-level foreign-language classes unconsciously account for and implicitly control virtually every aspect of the communication paradigm, restricting it to the simplest of communicative tasks. Since most learning is directed toward survival-level activities, the functions taught and the content areas addressed have remained fairly constant across training situations. However, the fact that function, content, and accuracy are interrelated mandates that no judgment of general language proficiency or "communicative competence" be made without considering all three.

A student cannot merely be declared competent in communication. The functions that he is competent to express must be specified. The degree of proficiency required to survive as a tourist or a student is not the same as that required to negotiate treaties. One finds that content areas and language functions needed for discussing abstract ideas differ from those used in telling about one's immediate needs or one's latest European vacation. Thus, it may be meaningful to discuss communicative competence as one single judgment only to the extent that both function and content are held constant. But when we do this, we are obligated to reveal to our students the limitations of such judgments, lest we deceive both them and ourselves. We must tell them not that they are competent to speak German, but that they are competent to meet routine physical and social obligations in an environment where German is spoken. The failure of the profession at large to come to grips with this reality (that is, with the tendency to think of communicative competence in terms of the simplest communication tasks in the context of sharing the communicative burden with an apparently intelligent, willing, and forgiving interlocutor) has resulted in the widespread impression that communicative competence is a term for communication *in spite of* language, rather than communication *through* language. As a result, the role of grammatical precision has been downplayed, particularly by some who carry the banner of communicative competence.

But what happens when the communication function becomes more complex, when a student's goal is to do more than merely survive in a generally friendly environment? Broadening the range of language proficiency expected from our students absolutely changes the rules of the game. Paralinguistic communication strategies become inefficient and counterproductive, and speakers whose communication repertoires are thus limited are rendered incapable of efficient or even marginally successful communication. This has been identified as a significant problem in situations in which the required range of linguistic functions exceeds those addressed to date by the professional studies on communicative competence.

A survey done for the West German government (16) on the linguistic needs of foreign workers produced two statements. The first identified the high-frequency vocabulary items necessary to begin integrating oneself into German society. The second statement concluded that mastery of the high-frequency structures alone was not sufficient to fully function within that society. In response to the motivating question behind the study, "How much German is it necessary for a foreigner to know in order to be integrated into the society?" the answer was essentially "All of it."

The apparent conflict between the two statements that emerged from the survey is easily resolved: While survival is possible with a minimum command of a language, integration is not. Survival and social integration bear little resemblance to each other. Although we as a profession have only recently begun to admit it to ourselves, to our students, and to the public at large, the capabilities of students who complete our language programs are extremely limited. A study conducted by John B. Carroll (3) in 1967 revealed that the average proficiency of language *majors* graduating from U.S. colleges and universities was about Level 2, as measured on the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) oral proficiency scale (see page 63). Weinstein (17) corroborated these findings when he reported that language majors applying for work with the State Department regularly tested at Level 2, unless they had had certain kinds of extended overseas experience. No evidence suggests that the situation has improved since then. The average proficiency level of job applicants (all of whom claim fluency in a foreign language) tested by the CIA during the first half of 1981 was 1+. This is why the U.S. government maintains its own language training facilities to give employees the language skills they need to perform their jobs.

We are faced with the irony of promoting languages for careers while failing to prepare students for more than tourist-level activities. The University of Dallas Graduate Program in International Management (10) found that few entering students—including language majors—have the language skills needed to participate in the International Management Program, to say nothing of those skills needed to lead a fulfilling and successful life in a culturally and linguistically alien situation. The Dean of the Graduate School of Business of the University of Dallas told one of the authors that language majors typically fail the foreign-language entrance examination.

A proven strategy for evaluating communicative competence

One of the areas with which the authors have more than a passing acquaintance is the use of oral proficiency measurements of the foreign-language skills of U.S. government employees and prospective employees. Because of the actualities of dealing with individuals, corporations, and other governments around the globe, the U.S. government has developed the FSI language-proficiency rating scale, which accounts in a systematic fashion for the variables of language function, context, and accuracy of communication. To our knowledge, this is the only existing test of oral language production that consistently takes all these factors into account. The instrument provides proficiency ratings on an eleven-point scale from 0 to 5, including intervening "+" designations. To make even more apparent the *functional* component of this scale, the CIA Language School, in cooperation with the Foreign Service Institute, has now organized the well publicized standard—i.e., *global*—proficiency definitions into a functional trisection of speaking proficiency which contains the three hierarchies of language function, context, and accuracy (see Figure 1).

The left-hand column of this trisection shows a progression of functional language tasks that starts with Level 0—no ability to communicate—and moves upward. At Level 1, one has the minimal ability to create in the language: to ask and answer factual questions. At Level 2, that ability expands to the point where one can narrate a series of events in the present, past, or future. At Level 3, one moves on to more abstract topics and is able to state hypotheses and deal with unfamiliar topics. Level 4, adds the tasks of representing a point of view in negotiations, whether for a private firm or for the government, and the sociolinguistic and cultural skills of tailoring one's language—dare we say "adapting one's linguistic competence"—to fit one's audience (i.e., through using different language registers or manipulating discourse structure). Level 5, the top of the scale, requires performance

LEVEL	FUNCTIONS	CONTENT*	ACCURACY**
FSI Speaking Level	Task accomplished, Attitudes expressed, Tone conveyed.	Topics, subject areas, activities and jobs addressed.	Acceptability, quality, and accuracy of message conveyed.
5	Functions equivalent to an Educated Native Speaker (ENS).	All subjects.	Performance equivalent to an ENS.
4	Able to tailor language to fit audience, counsel, persuade, negotiate, represent a point of view, and interpret for dignitaries.	All topics normally pertinent to professional needs.	Nearly equivalent to an ENS. Speech is extensive, precise, appropriate to every occasion with only occasional errors.
3	Can converse in formal and informal situations, resolve problem situations, deal with unfamiliar topics, provide explanations, describe in opinions, and hypothesize.	Practical, social, professional, and abstract topics, particular interests, and special fields of competence.	Errors never interfere with understanding and rarely disturb the native speaker (NS). Only sporadic errors in basic structures.
2	Able to fully participate in casual conversations, can express facts, give instructions, describe, report on, and provide narration about current, past, and future activities.	Concrete topics such as own background, family, and interests, work, travel, and current events.	Understandable to an NS *not* used to dealing with foreigners; sometimes miscommunicates.
1	Can create with the language: ask and answer questions, participate in short conversations.	Everyday survival topics and courtesy requirements.	Intelligible to an NS used to dealing with foreigners.
0	No functional ability.	None.	Unintelligible.

*May be job specific.

**See also factor performance rating scales.

Figure 1. Functional Trisection of Oral Proficiency Levels

on all tasks equivalent to that of an educated native speaker, with the emphasis on the word *educated*.

The center column of Figure 1 deals with content areas. Those outlined are particularly suited to government needs, but the items in this column are variable, depending on test setting. At Level 3, the government might ask about the merits and liabilities of increased military aid to El Salvador, while in an academic setting one might elicit positions with respect to faculty unionization. The task would be the same, and the content equivalent.

The third column judges effectiveness of communication. At the lowest levels the listener must contribute considerably in order that communication take place: a Level 1 speaker is expected to communicate successfully only with someone already accustomed to dealing with foreigners. At Level 2 any native speaker of the target language should be able to understand, while Level 3 requires that the speaker not miscommunicate. In Germany, for instance, he would not end up in a room having only a bathtub when he really had other needs. Nor would he say that an event had taken place when he meant only that it might have. The Level 4 speaker not only says what he means, but he does so with linguistic precision in terms of appropriate form and vocabulary. At Level 5, the speaker routinely uses the full range of inflection and nuance available to the native speaker.

The following hypothetical examples, based on the performance of State Department visa officers, will serve to demonstrate the various proficiency levels in performing the rather elementary task of passing on some factual information to a visa applicant:

Level	*Visa Officer's reply to applicant*
5	Under U.S. statutes, your affiliation with the Communist Party renders you ineligible for a regular tourist visa. There exist, however, waiver procedures which may be invoked. These are the steps that you should initiate . . . .
4	According to U.S. lawss your affiliation wiz ze Communist Party makes you uneligible for a regular tourist visa. You may, however, request a waiver. Zis iss what you must do . . . .
3	Zee laaw zayz zat mambears of zee Communistic Partee caanoht bee geeven a regoolair tooreest veesaa. Owehvair, egzeptions are zohmtaymes dunn. You must do zees . . . .
2	You cannot legulally get toolist visa. It is not light, because berong to Communistic Palty. But you can ask for a special permission. You to do this . . . .
1	You commyunist. No gyet vyisa. Got tryy agyain. Take thyis. Fyill in, plyeez.

These examples have been purposely contrived to demonstrate to Americans having limited experience with foreign languages what they themselves might sound like to a foreigner when attempting to communicate in the foreign language. The visa officer in each example was at least partially successful in communicating the fact that the applicant had to reapply using other procedures, but it should also be obvious that the total information communicated impressions about the speaker's intelligence and social status. As the officer's proficiency decreased, increasing demands were put upon the applicant to interpret the message. It bears repeating that under these circumstances the officer cannot depend on a sympathetic listener for moral and linguistic support.

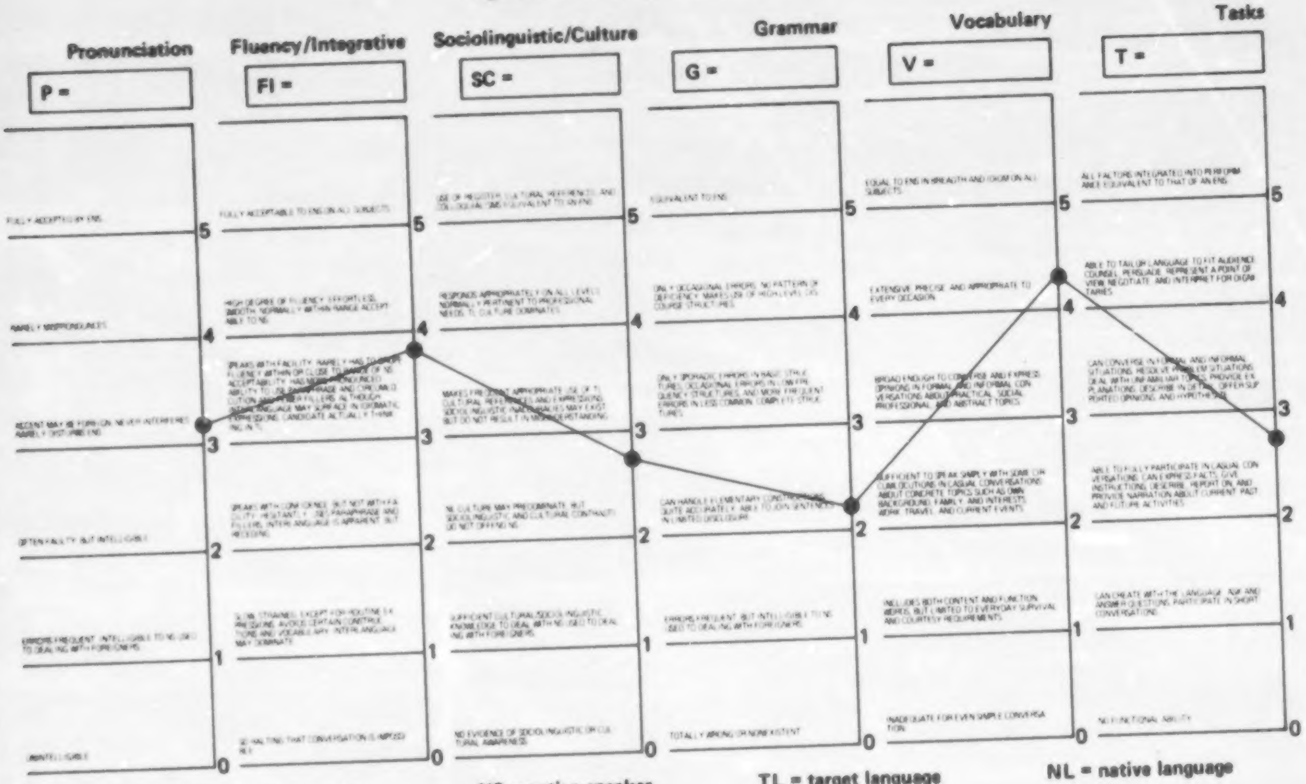
Improving on the FSI global proficiency ratings

The global rating system summarizes a multitude of data. It is a data reduction system that yields a single global score having a built-in promise of performance of a given language function within a given context with a given degree of accuracy. In the global rating, however, no individual components of the overall performance are broken out. Note that the accuracy component is an essential element of the rating, and for some tasks it may be the determining factor in establishing minimum acceptable job performance. The global rating system implicitly assumes that the ratings fall on a continuum, and that language students can be expected to progress more or less systematically from the lower to the higher levels. While the government schools, with their long and intensive training courses (which may include five to six hours per day of instruction, plus labs and outside assignments, for a year or more) have been generally successful at raising students to proficiency level 3 or better, recent analyses of students who have not met performance standards have led to the discovery of a phenomenon referred to as "the terminal 2." This rating is associated with students who enter training with a Level 2 proficiency but peak out at Level 2+. They do not progress to Level 3, and thus never attain the linguistic skills needed to reach minimum job proficiency standards. A global rating of 2 or 2+ does not distinguish those who promise to improve from those who are terminal at that level. It is the existence of these cases of fossilized language behavior that are of supreme importance in discussing the profession's push toward communication. For this reason, we will discuss these cases both in terms of their identifying characteristics and of what seem to be the common factors in their backgrounds. In order to characterize the typical "terminal 2+" it is necessary to look beyond the global rating, which merely places them at the 2/2+ level, and study more analytically the nature of their language skills.

Profiling the terminal 2/2+

With an eye to identifying terminal 2s and otherwise analyzing the constituent components of students' language abilities, the CIA Language School has developed the Performance Profile reporting form (figure 2). This profile

Figure 2. Speaking Performance Profile



ENS = educated native speaker NS = native speaker TL = target language NL = native language includes ratings in the traditional categories of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and fluency that are thought to contribute to general language ability. Included with fluency is another skill called "integrative ability" (i.e., the ability to put pieces of the language together and use them to communicate effectively). There is also a nontraditional scale for rating a candidate's sociolinguistic or cultural performance—such as using proper honorifics in Japanese or managing the formal/informal distinctions of other languages—and another scale of functional language ability labeled simply *tasks*. While this scale is already an integral part of the global rating system, its inclusion in the Performance Profile has the advantage of improving test elicitation techniques. If the raters know that they are to rate on this scale, they consistently include relevant tasks in the interview.

The test raters using the Performance Profile place a single mark on each vertical line to indicate the person's performance level in each area. When connected, these individual ratings chart the examinee's performance profile, as in Figure 2. The profile shown in Figure 2 suggests a global rating of 2+. It also indicates why the candidate is not a 3: he has the vocabulary of a 3+ or even a 4, but cannot perform the functions that a 3 must be able to perform, evidently because he lacks the necessary knowledge of grammar and/or control over it. This pattern of high vocabulary and low grammar is a classic profile for a terminal 2/2+.

In fact, the terminal profile illustrated in Figure 2 is encountered all too frequently in government screening programs. It is important to note that the grammar weaknesses that are typically found in this profile are not *missing* grammatical patterns, which the student could learn or acquire later on, but are *fossilized* incorrect patterns. Experience has shown again and again that such fossilized patterns are not remediable, even in intensive language training programs or additional in-country living experience. Hence the designation *terminal* 2/2+.

A terminal profile has also been identified at the 1+ level. The terminal 1+ has usually learned the foreign language on the streets. Street learners do not need accurate grammar to survive. As a result, they develop and internalize their own communication strategies. Even though most of these strategies are not linguistically correct, they succeed for Level 1 tasks. They do not, however, work at higher functional levels, when more sophisticated communicative tasks are attempted. This means that these inaccurate strategies, which normally consist of fossilized lexical and grammatical structures, have to be *unlearned* before functional language ability can be improved. Once again, remediation in these cases is seldom, if ever, successful.

Both of the terminal profiles discussed above share the common and distinctive feature of low grammatical accuracy and high vocabulary, that is, a level of grammatical control that lags well behind the levels achieved in the other language skills. Most crucially, both terminal profiles have proven to be "learning proof" whenever the grammatical weaknesses identified in the dipping performance profile consist of fossilized incorrect patterns and are not merely the result of having had no contact or acquaintance in those areas. Experience in government language schools also indicates that failure in retraining efforts is not the result of a lack of motivation. Students in language programs at FSI, CIA, and DLI are highly motivated professionals who know that overall job security, cash bonuses, and future salary increases all depend on their acquiring Level 3 proficiency.

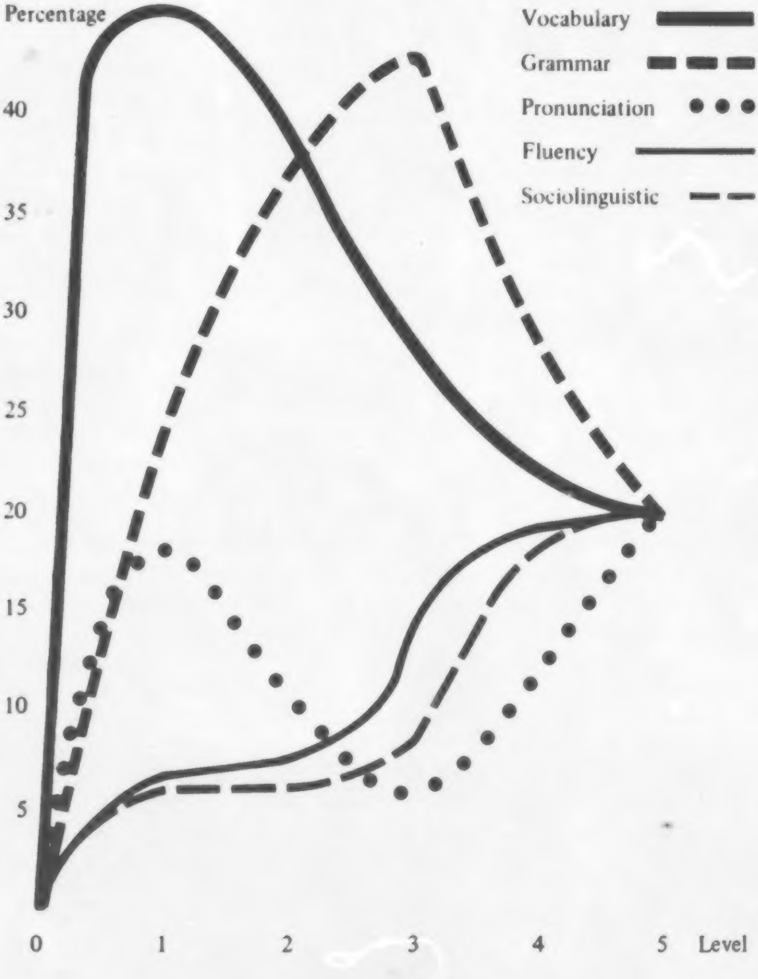
The explanation for the terminal profiles appears to lie in what cognitive psychology calls *proactive interference*, in which the prior learning of task A interferes with the current learning of task B. It has been demonstrated that the more similar the tasks A and B are, the greater is the negative interference of the former on the latter. The degree of interference corresponds to the strength of A, which in turn depends on the duration and frequency of practice at that task. If proactive interference underlies the learning disabilities of the terminal 1+ and 2+ students, then there should be identifiable features in the background of each that inhibit their continued language development. Fossilized or terminal language development has been found to be the most commonly shared feature in the language-learning experiences of these students.

It has already been mentioned that fossilized structures are a chronic problem among street learners of languages, such as students or servicemen stationed overseas. Americans are not the only ones who suffer from this type of experience. Foreign workers such as the *Gastarbeiter* in Germany and foreign students and workers in the U.S. also develop terminal proficiency profiles. In testing the language proficiency of pre-service language teachers at the University of Minnesota, one of the authors encountered terminal cases among those who were applying to be foreign-language teachers. Most terminal cases had begun their language training in unstructured overseas work or study settings, but some had had only school learning experiences. The terminal cases whose foreign-language background had included only an academic environment all came from language programs that either were taught by instructors who themselves had not attained grammatical mastery of the target language—and hence were unable to guide their students into correct usage—or by instructors who had chosen not to correct their students' mistakes for philosophical, methodological, or personal reasons.

Analyzing the factors of communicative competence

In 1978 the Research Committee of the Interagency Language Roundtable, an unofficial colloquium of approximately thirty government agencies involved in foreign-language teaching, began investigating the relative contribution of factors (i.e., subskills) to global language proficiency. It was proposed at that time that the relative contribution of the profile subskills is not constant across the full range of language proficiency acquisition. Vocabulary is obviously more essential than is grammar for successful performance at Level 1 tasks. At Level 5, all elements or subskills must be considered essential to one regarded as an educated native speaker. We assumed that somewhere in the middle of the proficiency scale there would be a relationship expressable in terms of the regression equations calculated at FSI two decades ago by Rice (12) and expanded upon recently by Adams (1). These assumptions led to the construction of a Hypothesized Relative Contribution Model (Figure 3), which posited a fluctuating relative importance of subskill factors contributing to global language proficiency. Levels of global proficiency make up the horizontal axis of the model, while the

Figure 3. Hypothesized Relative Contribution Model



vertical axis shows the hypothesized percentages or relative contributions of each subskill.

In interpreting Figure 3, it is important to remember that the height of a curve at any given proficiency level indicates relative contribution for each subskill. The fact that the vocabulary curve drops as it approaches Level 5 does not mean that less vocabulary is needed, but that in comparison to the other four contributory skills, vocabulary declines in relative importance. Because this is a graph of relative contributions, the values of the five curves at any given level always total 100%. At Level 1, the most important component of the 100% is hypothesized to be vocabulary, followed by sufficient grammar to create with the language, and a *minimum* threshold level of pronunciation sufficiently accurate to be understood. Fluency—as measured in terms of words per minute—and sociolinguistic elements are not yet crucial, because at this level one is concerned with listeners who are used to dealing with foreigners, and the expectations of both the speaker and the listener are quite low.

According to the hypothesis, at Level 2, these relationships would shift. The relative contribution of grammar would increase, as the required linguistic tasks (i.e., the range of linguistic functions to be mastered) became more complicated. At the same time, the relative importance of pronunciation would begin to decline after reaching the minimal level required to be understood.

Although few students in academic language programs, including language majors, reach Level 3, government intensive language training programs often achieve this goal. Based on our vast experience, we hypothesized that by Level 3 the relative mix of contributing subskills would change drastically. Grammar would be more important than vocabulary, and the importance of the subskills of fluency and sociolinguistic sensitivity would have increased. Although one could still succeed with a foreign-sounding pronunciation, it would be necessary to possess sufficient sociolinguistic skills and fluency so as not to offend or bore one's listeners.

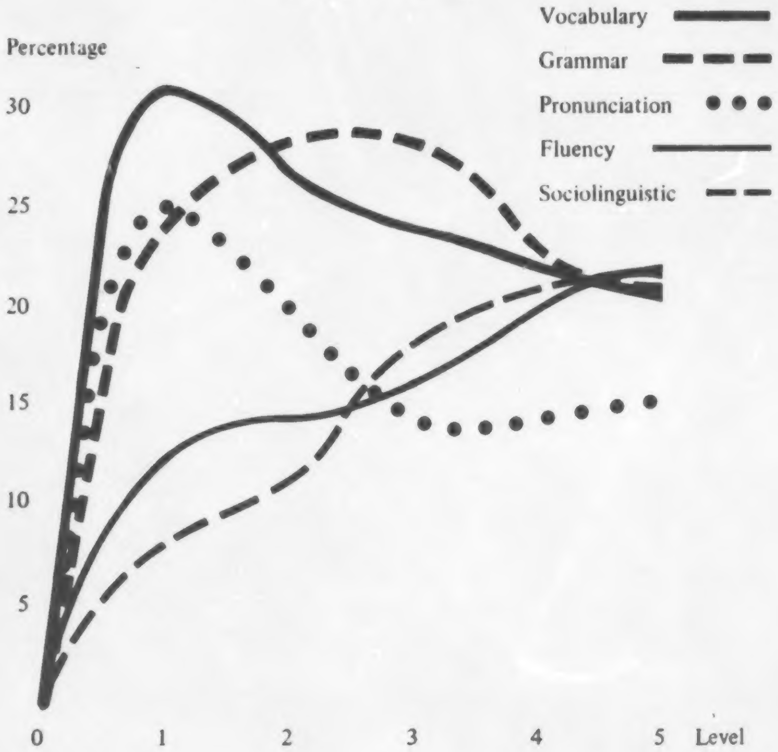
At Level 4, it was hypothesized that the curves would begin to coincide, as functional performance approached the level of the educated native speaker, who by definition would control each of these language aspects perfectly. On the assumption that a person whose language was lacking in any one of these areas would not be judged to be an educated native speaker, we judged that all subskills would contribute equally to the global performance rating of Level 5. Thus, all component curves converge at this level.

Verifying the hypothesis

At the time the Roundtable group posited the Hypothetical Model of Relative Contributions, no data base that contained both global ratings and subskill scores for the factors identified yet existed. In order to verify or refute the hypothesis, some fifty foreign-language teachers representing seventeen of the languages taught in the CIA Language School were asked to rate the relative importance of the contributory skills for each proficiency level on an instrument that paired each subskill with every other subskill. All of these teachers were members of the Language School staff, and thus were very familiar with the proficiency level definitions. Each was given a rating sheet for each of the levels, 1 through 5, and for each pair of subskills each teacher circled the one thought to be the more important in the global proficiency rating at that level. If they were believed to be of equal importance, a single circle was drawn around both subskills. These judgments were converted to percentage values, and a graph was constructed of the relative weightings given to each subskill for each level (Figure 4).

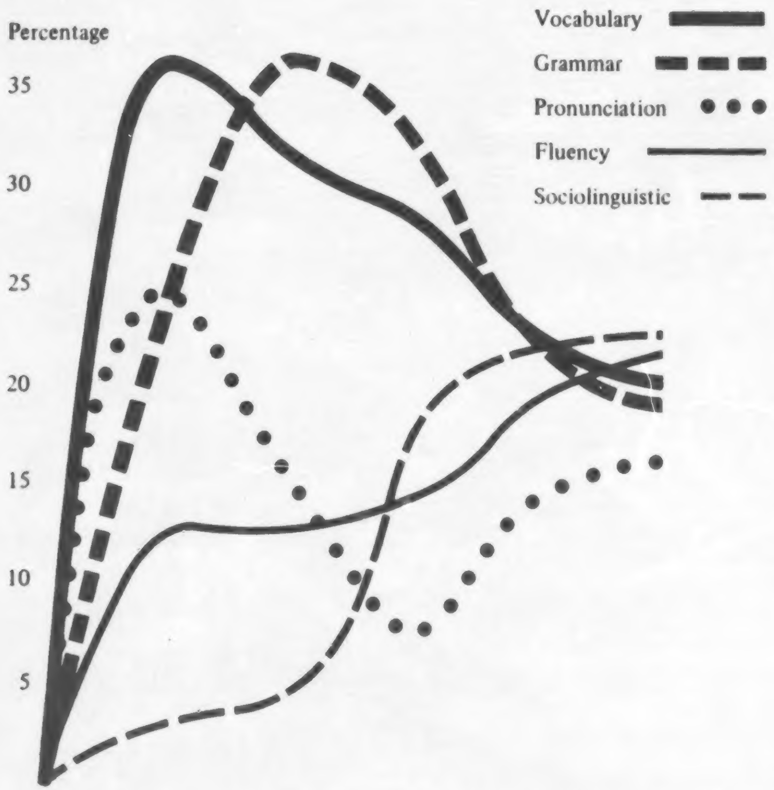
In general, the rankings made by the teachers supported our hypothesis, although the relationships were less exaggerated than we had supposed.

Figure 4. All Languages



There were also some interesting deviations from the hypothesized model. The sociolinguistic and fluency factors were more important than we had predicted for Level 3, and the shape of the pronunciation curve was also a surprise. Pronunciation was judged more important at Level 1 than had been predicted. It tapered off as predicted, but then did not rebound at the upper levels. Several plausible explanations for these variations were suggested. First, the initially high importance of pronunciation could have been a result of having included tonal languages in the sample. Second, the lower relative contribution of pronunciation at Level 5 might have reflected the fact that some languages contain widely divergent, but equally acceptable, regional differences in pronunciation. In order to account for these possibilities, a graph of the relative subskill contributions for global language

Figure 5. German



proficiency ratings in German alone was also prepared. Indeed we did find evidence to support the above explanations. The results of the German-only analysis (Figure 5) came even closer to the hypothesized model than did the total language mode.

Curricular and methodological considerations

The application of this hypothesized model of oral proficiency to curriculum design is quite straightforward. If the goal of the curriculum is to produce Level 3 speakers of a language, then the concentration on language subskills in the curriculum should be representative of their relative importance in performing Level 3 tasks. Grammar skills would be an important part of the curriculum. If the goal is to produce students with Level 1 survival skills, then the optimum curriculum mix would be entirely different, with a primary emphasis on the teaching and practice of vocabulary.

The ultimate goal of instruction is thus the deciding factor in establishing the factor mix for a particular curriculum. The key word is *ultimate*. While the most efficient way to achieve survival level proficiency would be a course that stressed vocabulary, our experience indicates that such a course would work to the disadvantage of students who wished to develop higher levels of proficiency. Students entering such a program would have to be warned of its potentially negative effect on their long-range aspirations. Whatever decisions are made, however, performance profile factors can provide useful information for both teachers and curriculum designers.

We have presented evidence based on experiential but consistent data representing many different people in different circumstances to suggest that certain methodological decisions or philosophical positions relevant to foreign-language teaching have important long-term consequences. These consequences transcend the general proficiency level of foreign-language students at arbitrarily selected interim points during the process of achieving true communicative competence. Data reported elsewhere in the literature show that in programs that have as curricular goals an early emphasis on unstructured communicative activities—minimizing, or excluding entirely, considerations of grammatical accuracy—it is possible in a fairly short time, say, not later than the fourth semester, to provide students with a relatively large vocabulary and a high degree of fluency, as measured by the delivery rate in words per minute. Moreover, these skills can indeed by used successfully by students, in combination with certain auto-generated communication strategies such as pidginization, elaborate mime, and gesture to realize a measure of authentic communication. Since "communication" is the *sine qua non* of language study, it would be difficult to quarrel with approaches that promise these kinds of results, if only the same approaches did not also carry such undesirable side effects. For these same data suggest that the premature immersion of a student into an unstructured or "free" conversational setting before certain fundamental linguistic structures are more or less in place is not done without cost. There appears to be a real danger of leading the students too rapidly into the "creative aspects of language use," in that if successful communication is encouraged and rewarded for its own sake, the effect seems to be one of rewarding at the same time the *incorrect* communication strategies seized upon in attempting to deal with the communication situations presented. When these reinforced communication strategies fossilize prematurely, their subsequent modification or ultimate correction is rendered difficult to the point of impossibility, irrespective of the native talent or high motivation that the individual may originally have brought to the task. Experience shows that even if students "learn" (as distinct from "acquire") grammatical rules later on, they find themselves quite unable to do what they know.

What about programs that from the early stages place a higher premium on linguistic or grammatical accuracy? Our preliminary interpretation of the data shows that at a corresponding point in the learning process, that is, after four semesters of instruction, although the vocabulary and fluency profiles are relatively lower than in the preceding case, the accuracy profile is much higher. Thus, although the performance levels for the three components—vocabulary, grammar, and fluency—are different between the two groups, the overall (i.e., global) ratings are comparable. The important difference between the competing profiles is the prognosis for each.

Allowing room for individual differences, the data suggest that members of the group that have arrived at the 2/2+ level through street learning or through "communication first" programs are either unsuccessful at increasing their linguistic ability or tend to show improvement only in areas in which they had already shown high profiles. An instructor at the DLI expressed despair over a student who after six months of intensive instruction in German had learned nothing but vocabulary. She was relieved to learn of the terminal 2+ syndrome, and subsequent conversations with her confirmed the terminal profile of her student. Grammatical precision seems largely unaffected, not only by additional classroom time but even by further in-country experience. The prognosis for members of this group is negative, and they tend to make up virtually all of the terminal 2s.

Members of the group that have arrived at the 2/2+ level through "accuracy first" programs, however, typically show the opposite prognosis. The expectation is that these individuals will continue to build on the skills they already possess, and will later learn or acquire additional skills necessary to progress upward beyond the 2/2+ level. What are the implications of these interpretations for curriculum and program planners?

While the data clearly show the need to attend to the grammatical or linguistic control that natives and competent nonnatives exercise in their use of the target language, we must also recognize that many factors enter into considerations of any methodological or curricular alternative. As a minimum, such considerations must take into account the student population, student and community expectations, motivation, staffing strengths and weaknesses, short- and long-term program objectives, and matters of articulation. In addition, how we perceive available options and choices to be made depends in part on the perspectives we assume, and also on the form in which we verbalize them.

Quite possibly every human being secretly embraces the fantasy of being multilingual. If we use the traditional clichés to verbalize this fantasy, a program that promises a "conversational approach" with "emphasis on oral communication" will certainly be perceived more positively than one that offers "a firm grounding in the major grammatical structures" of the target language. With this wording the latter program has a terminal public relations problem as serious as the former's terminal learning problem.

In the area of student motivation, evidence abounds that students enjoy, and presumably are motivated by, speaking the target language more than they enjoy and are motivated by learning its grammar. But here again, clichés have carried the burden of the message. It is entirely reasonable to assume, and to investigate the implications of the assumption, that the fundamental wellspring of such enjoyment and motivation may be the student's perception that speaking the language is an enabling process through which the fantasy of true bilingualism is to be realized. This recognizes only that students do not necessarily know what is best for them.

Let us consider now the question of program objectives. It sounds reasonable to argue that "since we're going to have the students for only a limited time, and since they're not likely to become genuinely fluent speakers of the target language as a result of our program alone, then it's better to provide them with what they'll be happy with, with what they can probably handle with relative ease, and with what our staff can reasonably be expected to deliver in the time available." Yet, what sounds so reasonable may in fact condemn the student-client to a proficiency level far below the one to which he or she aspires.

When we recognize that the typical university-level foreign-language major graduates mostly 2s or 2+s, then the program-terminal level of student performance is not at issue, for students can reach this level by either route. What is at issue is whether we opt for a program that produces a terminal 2/2+ or for one that produces a 2/2+ capable of going on under different circumstances—intensive instruction, foreign study or residence—to become a 3, a 4, or, in rare cases, even a 5. Viewed in this light, matters of public relations or short-term effect on student motivation take on a different cast, and the complementary notion of professional ethics moves into the foreground.

What may be needed is a two-track curriculum, with an unabashedly communicative syllabus for students whose terminal objective is to function marginally well in the target language, and a linguistic competence tract for those who aspire to using the language professionally. The former approach might attract greater numbers of students (6), and in fact allow for the luxury of offering the second. The danger in the two-track approach, of course, is that a student who completes the "communicative track" and has becomes genuinely excited about the target language may find it impossible to switch over. Evidence suggests that four semesters of instruction are enough to produce a terminal profile, and the time needed may in fact be even less than that. And the bottom line might be that the student's ability to communicate would not be materially better than if he or she had taken the other track from the beginning.

Conclusions

The first conclusion is that the hypotheses that we have presented, and their interpretations, must be subjected to rigorous research, designed to confirm and validate them. The existence of terminal profiles must be independently verified, and—in a related step—every effort must be directed at identifying the factors that lead to such profiles. The fundamental problem with undertaking such research in the normal university setting is that most programs never reach beyond the Level 2/2+ proficiency. One of the authors recently attempted to structure an advanced Spanish conversation course around a typical Level 3 task: presenting a viewpoint, defending that viewpoint, and attempting to convince others of its validity. It turned out not to matter whether positions were assigned at random or were chosen by the students out of their own systems of belief. None were able to perform the necessary language functions; they were limited to stating and restating their own opinions, saying in effect, "It's right because I believe it to be right." No one was able to restate the opposing viewpoint, interpret it in the context of some situation, and show up its shortcomings. The course was not a triumph, even though the students were anxious to master the language functions at issue. This again is only experiential verification of the phenomenon. What is needed is empirical research into the matter.

The ideal research design would be a longitudinal study based on a random selection of a population of students already at the 2/2+ level. They would be exposed to a variety of language training programs that would include all the variables of pacing, intensity, and methodology, and would ultimately be evaluated on their ability to handle multiple language functions. This design is doubtless impossible to realize.

There are ways, however, to get into the most fundamental issues. The best place to start would be at an institution that was admitting students at the 2/2+ level, and expecting to raise them to the 3/3+ level. Perhaps the NDEA institutes of the 1960s would serve as an example of this. Nowadays, the Foreign Service Institute, the CIA, or the Defense Language Institute might be the more obvious choices, although there are a few university programs that fit the criteria. The design would call for pretest and posttest data, which would divide the population into the improvers and the non-improvers. The key would be to ensure that the testing were adequate to the task. Evaluation would fall into three categories.

A macro-analysis would be done, probably in the form of an FSI-type Performance Profile. This would be complemented by a micro-analysis in the form of an achievement/diagnostic test such as the National Teacher Examination for foreign languages. In this way a profile of the relative strength of grammatical mastery versus vocabulary could be developed. A third component would characterize as accurately as possible their previous learning experiences in the target language. These data would be subjected to statistical procedures such as discriminate analysis, so that crucial factors in the students' prelearning experiences could be identified. For the posttest phase, real communicative competence would be measured, again on a Performance Profile, in terms of true-to-life simulations of multiple language functions. It is possible that the ACTFL/ETS workshops mentioned in the first chapter of this volume will contribute material for a research design such as this.

The issues we have addressed are substantive, although what is at stake is less an either/or proposition than a matter of priorities. A curricular or programmatic decision to strive for linguistic accuracy from the beginning of a program in no way excludes an approach or methodology in which the target language is used as the medium of instruction and for authentic, if relatively more constrained, communication. No reasoned interpretation of the data suggests a return to grammar-translation or classical mim-men audio-lingual methodologies. What is implied is the systematic recognition of the *ultimate* role that linguistic accuracy plays in the achievement of true communicative competence, in which it truly does matter *how* the message is transmitted.

More research into the phenomena under discussion is needed before decision making in these areas can become routine. The assumptions that underlie our interpretation of the data are that classroom experience should aid the students in achieving linguistic accuracy and simultaneously in developing true communicative competence. Students who are under pressure or in an emergency situation—in a classroom or a foreign country—will naturally resort to certain predictable communication strategies of the type already considered, regardless of the pedagogical model to which they are or have been exposed. These strategies will for the most part be at least partially successful, especially when dealing with the elementary Level 1 and 2 tasks presented in beginning language programs. However, those strategies that appear to succeed in spite of the linguistic system of the target language do not need positive reinforcement in a formal educational setting; they should be understood, interpreted, and accepted for what they are: survival strategies. Quality instructional time should be given over to encouraging the acquisition of communication strategies that are not only successful at the survival level but are also linguistically and culturally adequate for more serious and complex tasks.

In order to interpret these preliminary indications into a testable pedagogical model, it may be helpful to posit an output hypothesis analogous to Krashen's input hypothesis (9). According to the latter, acquisition is facilitated when input is provided to the students at a level just beyond their current receptive competence. If input is provided at too advanced a level, its meaning is not accessible to the students; it ceases to be comprehensible, and acquisition fails to take place. Analogously, students may acquire oral skills when they are encouraged to use the target language in communicative tasks that are also just beyond their productive competence. When the communication demands made upon the students are too far beyond their current competence, they are forced to adopt or invent communication strategies that lead to fossilization and ultimately prove self-defeating. For this reason it is important to match the communication task to the students' performance level. In the same sense that it is meaningless to declare a student communicatively competent—without specifying the language functions that he or she is competent to communicate—so it is meaningless to declare any situation a communicative setting. A situation is a useful communicative setting only when the language functions it elicits are appropriate to the performance level of the students. Thus, the choice of communication task is a critical step in implementing the output hypothesis.

We hypothesize that if students develop both receptive and productive competence at a pace that allows for reasonable internalization—albeit under heavy monitoring at first—then ultimately it will be easier for them to activate skills that are measurably present, though passively, than it will be for them to dismantle reinforced or fossilized skills and replace them with different ones. We base this hypothesis on practical experience and also on the construct of proactive interference, which becomes more likely as a function of the degree of internalization of the earlier responses and the degree of similarity between competing tasks. It is when students are regularly rewarded for linguistically inaccurate but otherwise successful communication of meaning or intent that the threat of proactive interference in the form of fossilization looms largest. Given the profession's goal of communicative competence, this problem cannot be ignored, and must not be taken lightly.

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4

Curricular Alternatives for Second-Language Learning

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Introduction

The term *alternatives* has become securely incorporated into our educational vocabulary. That alternatives are present even within traditional situations has earned widespread acceptance and has grown out of several necessities. First, a need exists to apply new knowledge and understanding of human learning that comes from the psychology and sociology of learning; such application calls for a continual reformation of teaching techniques. Second, teachers are experiencing demands to provide variations for individual learners who are entering a society characterized by requirements for worldwide communication and a rapidly expanding technology. Third, the profession must address issues and problems for which current practices are inadequate.

Second-language teachers have participated with educators in other fields in implementing alternatives such as programmed learning, computer-assisted instruction, and individualized instruction. Variables such as time for learning and group size have been manipulated to account for specific learning and instructional needs. However, these alternatives do not account for all that is known about the nature of language and how it is learned; neither do they accommodate all the problems confronting today's classroom language teacher.

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Despite recent attention at the federal level (Lange, 64; Simon, 90; *Strength through Wisdom*, 103; U.S. Congress, 104), language programs must fight for survival at the state and local levels. While a strong program actively supported by parents is more likely to earn administrative support, budget cutbacks and generally declining enrollments are largely out of teachers' hands. Within this larger framework, however, there exist considerations of enrollment and content that teachers can indeed address through curricular avenues.

Registration for foreign-language courses drops off at all levels as competition for students with other departments increases. A weak junior-high language program may deter students from enrolling in senior high language classes; on the other hand, junior high programs may "use up" senior high enrollments because students feel that they have "had all that." Enrollment problems evolve into scheduling problems. Multilevel classes are now common. Low registration means that only one section of some courses can be offered, opening the way to increased schedule conflicts, which further prevent students from taking a specific language course. Elementary and junior-high programs in particular operate under abbreviated schedules, with short periods or lack of daily contact.

In addition to these technical problems, the content of courses may not meet student needs. For example, the daily culture of the speakers of the target language may be inadequately treated. Courses are generally not designed to meet specific career needs. Students, especially at beginning levels, want to speak the language quickly and become frustrated when they cannot. At the college level, there is often a lack of concentration on skill development and an inordinate focus on remediation. A college student, for example, may be taught the full grammar of the target language each year, yet receive little exposure to stylistics and few opportunities to increase oral proficiency.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide teachers with a broad range of alternatives from which to select; these suggestions may be adapted in order to confront instructional challenges as well as problems such as those already mentioned. Although practical, this chapter is not a "how-to" manual. Rather, in an effort to supply teachers with the information they need in order to choose effectively and intelligently among the options, an overview of each alternative is presented with suggestions for implementation. A structure for constructing alternatives is defined in terms of those variables that can be manipulated. Specific curricular alternatives are then described in the areas of design, content definition, or instructional strategy.

A structure for alternatives

Individualized instruction provides students with the learning program most suited to their unique requirements. However, for a number of reasons including teacher time limitations, lack of materials, and insufficient research into learning styles and how to accommodate them, individualized instruction has been implemented so widely that it has virtually become its definition.

Defined short of its potential, individualized instruction may benefit from a renewed perspective. This perspective substitutes the term "personalized" for "individualized," thus reducing the isolationist tone, and interprets learning in a social context with the possibility of manipulating a number of variables. This slightly altered conception, contained in but not realized by the original ideal of individualized instruction, conforms well to the nature of language. The social nature of language must be recognized within the process used for language learning. Although progressing through a set of learning materials alone may be an appropriate technique for skill-building or remediation, a social setting is essential if language is to be learned for communication.

While individualized instruction has focused largely on varying the element of time, allowing students to work at their own pace, personalized instruction reminds us of the full complement of variables to be considered in structuring curricular alternatives. A survey of these instructional variables including some examples of their application forms a framework for discussing curricular alternatives for second-language teaching. Classroom teachers can use this framework to construct alternatives most appropriate to their situations. The variables treated are time, goals, learning strategies and materials, and evaluation strategies.

Time

Time can be manipulated in at least two ways, in terms of pace and in terms of course structure. Continuous progress learning (Logan, 68) represents the variation of pace. Here, the student takes as much time as necessary to learn the course material. Variation of course structure by time involves either the utilization of time periods of various lengths and intervals for particular instructional needs of the devotion of considerable and concentrated periods of time to language learning. The differentiated use of time may be exemplified by the once popular modular-flexible schedule (Grittner and LaLeike, 41; Saville, 85). A second-language course in a "mod-flex" schedule may meet for short periods twice a week for presentations and explanations, a long period every other week for a major lecture, guest speaker, or movie, and according to need for work in the language laboratory. The concentrated use of time may be either intensive or immersive. Intensive language-learning programs (Conner, 16; Galt, 32; Schulz and Benseler, 88; Wattenmaker, 109), those wherein the learner concentrates on the study of language for large periods of time each day over an extended period of time, can form the time structure for summer study or for a semester of study with language emphasis. Immersion language programs (Genesee, 35; Hawkins, 49; Hornby, 52; Stern and Cummins, 96) surround the learner continuously with the language over an extended period of time. Language camps and structured visits to a foreign country where the language is spoken are examples of immersion experiences.

Goals

As a variable, goals can be subdivided into course purpose and instructional objectives. A personalized program may identify and respond to the various purposes that the students have for taking a course. In the heterogenous public school classroom we typically find students who subscribe to language study for ethnic, career, social, scheduling, and intellectual reasons. These varying purposes may be accommodated by encouraging students to develop similar linguistic skills through different topics. As an alternative to adjusting one course to meet several purposes, the developer could design separate topics, each directed toward a specific purpose, such as reading for research, cultural exploration, or language for medical or business careers.

The second perspective from which course goals serve as a structural variable is that of instructional objectives. Three methods of varying objectives are proposed. First, objectives can be varied so that not all students are required to reach the same level of achievement, perhaps by establishing a range of acceptable achievement, by tailoring the expected achievement level to the student, or by posing a challenge beyond a standard achievement level. Second, the content of objectives (i.e., the material to be learned) can differ among students. Students could explore a single topic from different points of view, thus gaining a range of expertise to be shared during general discussion. The content of skill objectives can also vary. Because of diverse student interests and needs, one student may concentrate on listening comprehension while another focuses on grammatical accuracy in the written mode. Third, different kinds of objectives can fulfill alternate functions. Behavioral objectives (Mager, 70), which delineate content quite carefully and set definite mastery levels for observable behavior, suit basic skill learning and development. Gronlund (42) advances a format for behavioral objectives that lists sample behaviors which give evidence of the attainment of a general learning outcome. Objectives stated in this manner are quite appropriate for addressing language fluency, creativity, and communicative competence. Experiential objectives (Charles, 13), which describe an experience in which the student is to participate, relate well to cultural and situational learning. These three types of objectives can be combined within a course to provide a balanced and inclusive learning experience.

Learning strategies and materials

While the possibilities for varying learning strategies and materials are theoretically limitless, three elements define them within the structure of personalized language programs: group size, medium of instruction, and source. The size of the learning group should match instructional intent: large or medium groups for grammar presentations and explanations, skits, and discussions of literature; small groups for oral drills and conversations; and an individual setting for research, remedial work, and writing. These suggestions are not prescriptive but are simply a reminder that the effectiveness and efficiency of instruction depends in part on appropriate group sizes. With thought, group sizes can be adjusted even within the traditional classroom structure. A class session could open with a large group review. Then one section of the class could receive a grammar explanation while the remainder worked individually on writing tasks or with tape machines. The teacher might then have the first class section work together in pairs and divide the second half of the class into small groups for oral drill and conversation.

All forms of audio-visual devices come to mind at the word "medium of instruction." These include overhead projectors, pocket charts, slides, and posters. The technical meaning can be broadened to include activities through which students can learn: listening, discussing, writing, constructing, reading, drawing, painting, telling, viewing, visiting, teaching, illustrating, game playing, making, role playing, and manipulating. Each medium may be commercially produced, teacher-produced, or student-produced. Several of the alternatives discussed later in this chapter stimulate student production of materials. Personalized programs integrate sources, media, and group sizes for the most effective composite of learning strategies and materials.

Evaluation strategies

Evaluation strategies can also be considered in terms of group size, medium, and source. Individually written tests, taped listening-comprehension tests, and oral interview procedures comprise commonly used approaches to formal evaluation. However, evaluation can also take place in a small group conversational setting where the teacher scores students on the situationally correct use of grammar, vocabulary, and style, or through the production of a group project. While such techniques are often applied for formative evaluation, or ongoing feedback, they are also useful for summative evaluation (i.e., the measurement of course outcomes).

The development of an alternative program involves not only a decision as to which approach best represents the teacher's philosophy of education and pedagogical theory, but also a respect for management and organizational problems and the students' needs, level of maturity, and flexibility. Teachers may select alternatives according to their beliefs about education and methods of instruction as well as identified learner needs. However, in order to prepare for proper management of the program and to anticipate the students' readiness for it, teachers are urged to ask questions of its structure:

- Which variables—time, goals, learning strategies and materials, and evaluation strategies—are emphasized by this alternative?
- How are the variables manipulated?
- Does the manner in which they are manipulated serve the needs identified?
- Can my students handle this set of variations? If not, how can I teach them to handle it?
- Do I need to modify the alternative to deemphasize or stress one or more variables?
- What management problems do I anticipate? What techniques can deal with them effectively?

Thorough understanding of the structure of an alternative leads to thorough preparation for its implementation and often determines the success or failure of a program.

Curricular alternatives

Ten curricular alternatives for second-language education are treated below under the headings *alternative curricular designs, content alternatives,* and *instructional alternatives.* At the level of curriculum design, that is, the level at which the pattern accepted for selecting, planning, and implementing educational experiences is defined (Saylor, Alexander, and Lewis, 86), two very different designs—systems-behavioral and problem-posing—offer distinct options for approaching the teaching of second languages and cultures. Other alternatives affect primarily the content of the program: functional-notional syllabuses, cross-disciplinary approaches, career education, and global education. The central focus of this chapter is not instructional methodology, but in a presentation of curricular options, instructional alternatives such as counseling-learning, the Silent Way, and cooperative learning cannot be overlooked.

Alternative curriculum designs

Systems-behavioral design. Skinner (91, 92, 93) is recognized as the father of behaviorism. Based on the theory of operant conditioning (Skinner, 94), behaviorism advocates a stimulus-response methodology for learning a carefully analyzed sequence of knowledge. Learning is measured by a change in observable behavior. For educational purposes, behaviorism has found a framework in the systems structure. A systems organization requires 1) the setting of specific objectives, 2) the determination of activities to enable learners to attain the objectives, and 3) the construction of measurement devices to determine if and how well learners have met the objectives. Usually, there is also provision for recycling through the learning activities if this proves to be necessary.

The pedagogical philosophy that evolves out of a systems-behavioral design stresses two concepts: incremental learning and mastery learning. The concept of incremental learning calls for an initial analysis of the subject matter into discrete learning units. For second languages, the structure of the target language is first analyzed into discrete learning units. These are ordered, respecting any sequences inherent in the structure itself. This ordering may ensure that subject pronouns are learned before object pronouns or that simple sentences are introduced before embedded sentences.

Since one assumption of incremental learning is that an earlier step is prerequisite for a subsequent step, acceptable performance on each step is required before progressing to the next stage in the sequence. The acceptable level of performance is usually stated in terms of a percent of correct items. It is assumed that, given appropriate learning activities, all students can achieve mastery if they have enough time. This assumption results in the practice of continuous-progress learning, where students proceed at their own pace, taking as much time as necessary to meet the learning objectives.

The systems-behavioral design for second-language teaching has been most widely adapted in the familiar individualized instruction programs and in programmed learning (Altman and Politzer, 2; Gougher, 38; Grittner and LaLeike, 41; Logan, 68). The student with an analytical learning style may profit considerably from this approach. The identification of specific learning units and objectives makes this design particularly suitable to remediation of an individual student's weaknesses as well as to building and strengthening basic language skills. With its focus on ordering, the systems-behavioral design prompts the profession to rethink its traditional sequence for presenting the grammar of a language: Must all subject pronouns be learned simultaneously? Do irregular present tense verbs really have to be introduced before the regular past tense? Although the systems-behavioral design has been applied primarily to learning morphology and syntax of language, Banathy and Lange (4) have investigated other applications. Theoretically, the systems-behavioral design offers a means for classroom exploration of such areas as cultural patterns and information, stylistics, attitudes and feelings, and gestures. These applications of the systems-behavioral design, though, have not generally been put into practice.

The systems-behavioral design does have certain limitations in relation to the teaching of second languages. First, it is most easily adapted to the individual situation and therefore needs either to be carefully structured to include group activities, or supplemented by an approach more amenable to the group situation required for social language development. Second, the emphasis on analysis and on discrete item mastery may overshadow the resynthesis of these items into language used situationally for communication. Third, while the grammar of a language is easily incrementalized, the cultural content of a language course is inherently less suited to identification of discrete and ordered units. Even so, with an understanding of these limitations, teachers can successfully utilize a systems-behavioral design for a total course structure or for particular needs within a course.

Problem-posing education. The major proponent of problem-posing education is the Brazilian-born educator Paulo Freire (27, 28, 29, 30). Freire's educational position receives support from a group of curriculum theorists known as reconceptualists, among whom stand James Macdonald, Michael Apple, John Mann, Dwayne Huebner, Maxine Greene, Madeleine Grumet, William Pinar (78, 79), and George Willis (111). The literature demonstrates concern for application of concepts included in problem-posing education to foreign-language curricula (Bowers, 8; Grittner, 39; Grittner and Fearing, 40; Holec, 51; Jarvis, 54; Lewis, 66). Warriner (108) and Lapan (65) call attention specifically to the work of Paulo Freire. In contrast to the technological base of the systems-behavioral design, problem-posing education has its roots in the humanities, as evidenced in an instructional and evaluative methodology derived from existentialist and phenomenological philosophy (Denton, 23).

From the existentialist emphasis, problem-posing education extracts a concern for the real-life situation of the learners as well as a perception of the student as decision-maker. Problems faced by the learners in their daily living are the source of content for a problem-posing program. After a problem is identified, learners view it not by analytically dissecting it into its component parts, as in problem-solving education, but by synthetically relating it to other facets of their lives. For example, discussion of racial tensions felt in school may lead to consideration of housing patterns and the gerrymandering of school attendance areas. In the foreign language classroom, this discussion would extend to similar situations in the target culture, providing a basis for comparison of the two cultures. In and of itself, but particularly within the confines of second-language education, this design is significantly cultural in orientation, with culture considered in terms of how people live and work. Thus, problem-posing education puts culture in the *central* position and understands language as a communicative tool expressive of that culture, a shift recently supported by Strasheim (99, 102).

With the course organized through the integration of language and culture, the language to be studied is defined in relation to a cultural theme, not a text or structural analysis of the language. This design assumes that language cannot be validly taught apart from its culture. Although problem-posing education enters the learning of language from the point of cultural issues, it does not neglect development of language skills. Throughout the problem-posing process, the learners play a decision-making role in the selection of the topic for study, the development and utilization of learning materials, and the determination of any action to be taken in relation to the topics of study.

The phenomenological aspect of problem-posing education appears in the emphasis on how the learners perceive their personal situation. This curriculum design, then, is purposefully subjective. Its respect for students' perceptions shifts the classroom orientation from teacher as dispenser of knowledge and students as recipients, to teachers and students as mutually reflecting on a cultural theme with both contributing valid insights. This shift in roles is expected to aid in developing the ability to think critically about the world. Language learning is structured into this framework.

Two central pedagogical concepts of this design are praxis and dialogue. Praxis is the method of problem-posing education and is defined as the unit of reflection and action. Instructional procedures must provide both an opportunity for reflection on the topic, so as to broaden perception of it, and an opportunity for taking action with regard to the topic, so as to improve the life situation with which it deals. Dialogue forms the educational context, the place where praxis occurs. The purpose of dialogue is to stimulate new ideas, opinions, and perceptions rather than simply to exchange them. The teacher participates in dialogue on an equal basis with the students. Since dialogue must take place in a group, it affirms learning as a social activity.

A brief example may clarify the previous discussion. The following description reports the application of problem-posing education at the college level (Johnson, 59):

1 Identification of problem: Two students who have each recently experienced a death in the family voluntarily bring in to the class the bills from the funeral homes. They point out the high amount of the bills and the absence of detailed itemization of costs. The class decides to examine funeral practices and costs.
2 Praxis-Culture
  a. Reflection
    1) Native culture: Students visit funeral homes, and interview morticians and clergymen. The information and insights gained are shared in target language dialogue.
    2) Target culture: Students investigate funeral practices and costs in the target culture by reading relevant books, interviewing native speakers, viewing pictures, slides, and films, comparing city practices with rural or small town practices. This research is conducted in the target language. The information and insights gained are shared in target language dialogue.
    3) Native culture-target culture: In dialogue conducted in the target language, students compare the funeral practices and costs of the two cultures. As part of this process, they identify practices that they would like to change in their own culture, perhaps incorporating influences from the target culture. In addition, students come

to view the funeral home industry in its relations with political and economic systems; they also increase their awareness of cultural attitudes toward death.

- b. Action: Students inform students in other classes of the information gained and the content of their dialogue through a newsletter that they write and publish in the target language. This stimulates responses printed in a "letters to the editor" column.

3 Praxis-Language Learning

- a. Reflection
  - 1) Students identify needed vocabulary.
  - 2) Through the following student-initiated activities, teacher and students identify grammatical structures which must be learned, reviewed, or practiced for fluency:
    - a) Listening to native speakers of the target language and to films
    - b) Speaking to native speakers of the target language and to each other in the target language
    - c) Reading books and the writings of other students in the target language
    - d) Writing letters and newsletters in the target language, as well as keeping a daily journal recording personal reactions to the class.
- b. Action
  - 1) Students teach the needed vocabulary to each other, examine each other on accurate acquisition of the vocabulary, and use it in the above activities.
  - 2) Students utilize available language learning resources in conjunction with the above activities in order to develop competence in the grammar of the language. This process is "personalized," as this term is used earlier in this chapter. Students or groups of students each focus on different grammatical structures. With the identification of a general weakness, the teacher sets aside class periods for total group concentration on a single grammatical element using a variety of methodologies (e.g., oral drills, conversation practice, written exercises, and partner or group work) and is a combination of student-produced and commercially produced texts. The learned grammar is used in the cultural situation. Teacher and students both act as observers, checking for linguistic competence.

At the high school level, students in a problem-posing language class might initiate the topic of employment for teenagers. Students and teacher can reflect on this topic by interpreting a slide showing a student applying for a job, by gathering and discussing the implications of want ads directed toward teens, and by focusing on questions related to hours, wages, and the effect of work on social life, family life, and schoolwork. Students and teacher can extend this dialogue into reflection on similar materials from the target culture, leading to intercultural learning, comparison, and understanding. As a result, students might dress differently for a job interview, leave their friends behind when seeking employment, or present themselves more confidently. Vocabulary and grammatical structures related to this topic comprise the content for language learning. Students, for example, could generate conversations likely to occur in both a native culture and a target culture job interview. The teacher puts these conversations into the target language and identifies within them the vocabulary and structures that the students must learn. The teacher and students select and utilize appropriate language-learning techniques such as grammar explanations, charts, and the several types of written and oral drills. The cultural content of the student-generated conversations can in turn become the object of reflection.

Readers who find themselves sympathetic to problem-posing education or see a usefulness for it in their courses are referred to Crawford (18), who details a problem-posing curriculum design for second-language teaching, and Lange (63), who applies a problem-posing curriculum process to cultural education and teacher training. Problem-posing education is process-oriented, aims at developing critical thinking, cultivates the ability to synthesize, takes a social posture toward learning, and centers on culture. The fact that language learning in a problem-posing design evolves out of an issue that is real to the students and is related to an imminent need to communicate in the target language forestalls motivational problems, centers language learning in a cultural base, and provides a purposefulness to the language-learning activities. Any application of this design should capitalize on these characteristics.

While problem-posing education holds promise for the teaching of second languages and cultures, certain cautions deserve attention. The design is as yet large untried except in isolated instances (Bailey, 3; Crawford, 17; Ewert, 25; Johnson, 59; Lange, 63; Pereira, 77; Steckel, 95), and therefore its effect on learning in general and language learning in particular has not been measured. The design lacks systematic materials, detailed goals, and prespecified objectives, thus requiring a large fund of resources as well as great flexibility and linguistic skill on the part of the teacher. The practical application of problem-posing education for the initial stages of language learning has not yet been sufficiently explored. The integration of language learning and cultural investigation requires careful treatment so that one supports, rather than overwhelms, the other.

Experimentation with problem-posing education in the foreign language classroom, however, could well begin by integrating it with the functional-notional syllabus and/or global education, both discussed later in this chapter. Problem-posing education holds the potential for providing the profession with an anthropological approach to the teaching of language. Currently, no well-developed anthropological model for the teaching of second languages exists, nor are teachers trained to pursue that direction. Research concentrated on such a model may 1) determine the feasibility of an anthropological approach to the teaching of languages, 2) reveal more about how language is learned, and 3) challenge some of the pedagogical tenets of the language teaching profession.

In theory, the systems-behavioral and problem-posing designs complement one another, each design accounting for the deficiencies of the other. However, in practice, the two designs are not compatible because they make different assumptions about how people learn. Problem-posing education argues that 1) the student must be actively involved in defining the content of learning, 2) language cannot be learned apart from its culture, 3) language learning does not have to follow a prespecified sequence, 4) language learning and evaluation do not have to proceed through discrete units, and 5) the development of critical thinking is the primary purpose of educational activity. The systems-behavioral design, on the other hand 1) defines the content for the learner, 2) accepts that language can be taught apart from its culture, 3) prespecifies objectives, and, generally, their sequence, 4) focuses on discrete item mastery and evaluation, and 5) acknowledges that the acquisition of knowledge can be the primary purpose of educational activity. Which of the two designs a teacher will employ depends partially on the teacher's personal beliefs about education and partially on the expectations of students, community, and supervisors.

Content alternatives

The curriculum designs presented in the previous section supply a complete structure for the curriculum, including philosophy and assumptions through content definition and instructional strategies. On the other hand, the functional-notional syllabus as well as the interdisciplinary approaches discussed below are concerned mainly with the definition of content (i.e., what is to be studied) and with their own underlying philosophy and assumptions relating to that content.

Functional-notional syllabus. In contrast with the systems-behavioral and the problem-posing designs, the functional-notional syllabus defines the content for language study by consciously and formally combining the purposes to which language is put and grammatical analysis. Once the content is identified through this dual approach, it can conform to the instructional strategies of any chosen curriculum design.

Munby (73) states that building this body of content requires acceptance of three assumptions. First, the selection of communicative units for inclusion in the content involves analysis at the level of human interaction (i.e., how language is used for different purposes). Second, rules of rhetoric and context deserve consideration equal to that traditionally accorded to rules of grammar and discrete vocabulary items. Third, if communicative competence is truly a goal, then the usual structure of syllabuses must be redefined to include that concern. Brumfit (10) reminds those constructing communicative syllabuses that: "We are not teaching a limited set of behaviors, but a capacity to produce those behaviors: a capacity which cannot help enabling its user to behave in many ways other than those specified by a limited selection." Therefore, communicative syllabuses should provide learners with "strategies for interaction" rather than simply a list of rules or expected behaviors.

Applied linguists, especially those in Europe and England, have explored such communicative syllabuses, chiefly under the designation *functional-notional*. Van Ek (107) comments that this syllabus model dissects language behavior quite simply into performance (function) and expression or reference (notion). Function is a matter of purpose (i.e., what a person does by means of language: asking, commanding, persuading, greeting, etc.). Notion concerns the content of the purpose. For example, a person may ask (function) for a pen (notion), may command (function) another to stand (notion), may persuade (function) the customer to buy a dress (notion).

A functional-notional syllabus, then, identifies the purposes for which learners need the language and the notions they must handle with it. Munby (73) proposes that these be determined by asking, "Who is communicating with whom, why, where, when, how, at what level, about what, and in what way?" Wilkins's (110) answer to these questions produces a categorization of functions and notions in the form of a taxonomy and recognizes the need to integrate grammar in order to realize a complete syllabus. Munby (73) also produces lists specifying functions and notions, but in addition develops a plan for integrating grammar, thus yielding a unified syllabus design. Brumfit (10) would have grammar form the core of the syllabus with functions and notions treated in relation to grammatical concepts. He further suggests that the profession should be looking more for a communicative methodology than a communicative syllabus. Perhaps a functional-notional syllabus within a problem-posing curriculum design would shed light on such a methodology.

As this sampling of interpretations of the functional-notional syllabus indicates, the concept is still in the developmental and exploratory stages and is not sufficiently systematized for widespread classroom application. Although Guntermann (46), McKay (72), and Harlow, Smith, and Garfinkel (48) have taken steps toward structuring communicative syllabuses for American schools, and Knop (61) and Cross (19) have offered suggestions for immediate classroom application of the functional-notional concept, no functional-notional syllabus has yet been published in the United States.

Indeed, problems of complexity may delay classroom utilization of the functional-notional syllabus for some time. The content of the functional-notional syllabus is itself complex. Functions and structures do not uniformly correspond to each other; one cannot be inferred from the other. Further, classroom incorporation of the functional-notional syllabus complicates the teacher's task by requiring consideration of the social purposes of language in addition to morphology, phonology, syntax, and lexicon

(Valdman, 105). And, as Wilkins (110) points out, the social purposes to which second-language students in general courses will put the target language are frequently nonexistent, unknown, or at best ill-defined.

Valdman and Warriner-Burke (106) propose that, lacking specification of communicative purpose, communicative objectives serve to provide students with samples of verbal social interaction. Following on George's (37) concept of a "little" language, they offer a reductionist approach to designing syllabuses aimed at developing communicative ability. This approach simplifies the vocabulary and structural elements introduced, provides for realistic speech patterns, and gives high priority to communicative goals. The amount of material that must be mastered is therefore reduced, allowing students to gain fluency within a limited corpus of language. Despite the complexity, the potential for the functional-notional syllabus is great, both in a pedagogical and a theoretical sense: pedagogical in that it could provide just the information needed to devise better career-oriented courses and courses for other specific purposes, and theoretical in that it appreciates language and the learning of language as a unit or purpose and structure.

Interdisciplinary approaches. Interdisciplinary approaches bring to the language class topics not traditionally included in second-language curricula. Language teachers are in an unusual and very flexible position if they consider language as a communicative tool. Herein lies the flexibility. The learners should communicate about something: it does not matter about what. Course topics are not restricted a priori; the only stricture is that the target language be used, and therefore developed, in addressing some topic.

Cross-disciplinary techniques have the advantage of involving the language students in work assigned to them in other classes, thus reinforcing other teachers' efforts and gaining their support. By *cross-disciplinary* is meant the incorporation into the language class of material being taught in other departments (Guntermann, 45). For example, why not label the parts of a microscope in French, write a review in Spanish of a book read in English class, utilize worksheets from mathematics classes for the teaching of numbers in German, transcribe a recipe from cooking class into metric measurement, research child care in France for a report for a child development class, or follow the foreign-language instructions on a pattern for a sewing class. On more than one occasion, language teachers have discovered that the teacher of the content area class had some background in the target language and offered to accept additional assignments from students in the foreign language.

Cross-disciplinary can also mean the expansion of a language class project to involve students and teachers of other classes (Crouse et al., 20; Galloway, 31). Discussion with one high school teacher (Ross, 84) generated the following example. Language students could rewrite in storybook form a play they had written and performed earlier in the year. They would then work with art students to illustrate the text, being sure that the representations were culturally appropriate. Students from the graphics department could be invited to print and bind the storybook, which could be used with elementary-level students. A difficulty experienced in moving toward implementation of such an idea is suspicion on the part of the other teachers and/or students that they are being "used" by the foreign-language department and asked to do "extra work." This negative feeling can be avoided by joint planning, which generates enthusiasm for the project on the part of all the teachers involved. Planning should occur well enough in advance of the project so that the non-foreign-language teachers can incorporate the project as an integral part of their courses rather than as an awkward add-on.

In the preceding example, students in each department use their skills for a productive purpose, thus suggesting career education. Career education is a primary thrust in contemporary education (Beckerman, 7; Neill, 74, 75; Reinhart, 83). It responds to a general concern that young people make vocational decisions wisely and with a broad base of information about themselves and the world of work. Ideally, career education involves a K−12 program moving through five stages: awareness, exploration, preparation, placement, and continuing education (McLure, 71). Language teachers should have an additional interest in career education because student awareness of career uses for second languages will strengthen the language program as well as provide employers with people trained in language (Galt, 32). Elling (24) outlines a five-step process for language teachers committed to a comprehensive career education program. At a more general level, career education in second languages should 1) expose students to the variety of jobs that require language skills, and 2) provide training oriented toward entering a specific career. Foreign-language departments could sponsor career days in conjunction with another department; these could be held in the evening so parents could participate (Foreign Language Education, 26). If foreign-language proficiency is indeed useful in securing positions in, for example, business or a trade area, perhaps the respective departments could be convinced to include foreign language as a suggested course for students to follow in preparing for their careers (11). Cooperative work programs offer another exciting opportunity for students actually to be placed in positions requiring their use of a second language.

In addition to efforts in conjunction with other departments, second-language teachers should review their own course offerings, beginning with course descriptions in the registration booklet. The typical language course description does not deviate too far from the following:

> French (German, Spanish) I (II, III, IV) All Year
>
> At this level, you will develop the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in [target language]. The course will explore the culture of [target language] through films and literature.

And then we wonder why students do not sign up for the course! What is there in the description to attract the student? Why must all language courses be identified solely by level? Why must they all be year-long courses? Why is it not the practice to include in course descriptions purposes for which the language might be used? Consider the following:

> German for the Medical Professions: Intermediate Level One semester
>
> In this course you will participate in activities in which you play both the roles of medical professional and patient. These activities will include reading a medical chart, taking down a health history, and discussing symptoms. In addition, you will study medical professions as they are practiced in Germany and will investigate medical careers open to you in the United States.
>
> French for Secretarial Careers: Advanced Level One semester
>
> This course will provide you with practice in skills necessary for a position as a bilingual secretary, French-English. You will learn the format of French business letters, practice typing in French, read and respond to French business correspondence, function as a receptionist in French, and use the telephone for business purposes in French. Opportunities for clerical and secretarial positions both in the United States and in French-speaking nations will be explored, and you will also learn about the life and work of a secretary in France.

It is conceivable that courses of these types, or parts of other courses, could be developed for even the beginning levels. Beginning level classes could collect want ads from both target and native language sources in order to compare them and to become exposed to the occupational advantages of knowing two languages. Units could concentrate vocabulary and dialogues on a particular job cluster. Through individual projects, students could investigate personal career choices, identify and learn vocabulary relevant to those choices, and compare their choice with its counterpart in the target culture.

Additional guidance for incorporating career education into the foreign-language curriculum is contained in Busse (12), who reviews several programs in progress and provides a list of career education resources, Hunter (53), who compiled an annotated bibliography for career education within foreign-language curricula, and DeLorenzo (22), whose comprehensive packet supplies both a conceptual orientation to career education and practical suggestions for its implementation in the foreign-language classroom. Inclusion of career education broadens the foreign-language curriculum, thus strengthening its ability to attract and retain students.

Students are also entering a world where nation affects nation. The third interdisciplinary approach, global education, focuses on international understanding and on preparing students to deal with world problems and issues by developing their capacity to address questions of interdependence, conflict, communication, growth, and change. Educators have not yet agreed on a single definition for global education (Bragaw, Loew, and Wooster, 9), but Hanvey (47) points teachers toward five goals: awareness of the current planetary situation, awareness of the choices people can and must make, understanding of the dynamics of international relationships, consciousness of and respect for different ways of viewing the world, and cross-cultural awareness. Although global education should pervade all disciplines at all levels (Strasheim, 99), at present it generally comes under the auspices of social studies departments (Collins, 14).

There has recently been increasing cooperation among social studies and foreign language professional organizations (Bragaw, Loew, and Wooster, 9; "Recommendations," 82). In 1981 both the Northeast and the Central States Conferences took global education as their theme (Conner, 15; Geno, 36), and ACTFL projects a joint conference with the National Council for the Social Studies in 1983 (Lange, 62). Social studies teachers recognize the affinity of modern languages for global studies but note that the effectiveness of language classes for global understanding is hampered if cultural studies are insufficiently pursued (Collins, 14). Strasheim (98, 101) points out that language teachers cannot presume a role in global education simply on the basis of language study. A study by Barrows *et al.* (6) reinforces this view. The researchers found no relationship between foreign language proficiency and knowledge of global affairs and only a moderate relationship between foreign language proficiency and affective responsiveness to global matters. Language-culture study, however, carries the potential for opening the student to new ways of viewing the world and to an understanding of how various languages and cultures interact (Strasheim, 102).

This cultural understanding can be achieved by increasing implementation of culture-learning strategies such as culture assimilators, capsules, and clusters; coordinating with social studies teachers on topics; cultural concepts, and current events; and maintaining the attitude that language study is not just skill-learning but is also learning about the world (Elling, 24; Seelye, 89; Strasheim, 101). Greater integration of global education into the foreign language classroom can be achieved by changing the content of instruction rather than by adding on to it. Bragaw *et al.* (9) propose three change strategies, in increasing order of degree of change required. The most basic change involves evaluating currently used material for its potential in terms of global education. Based on the evaluation, a teacher would either use the material as is, adapt it more closely to global education, or reject it. The authors offer a criteria checklist for conducting this evaluation. A second change strategy proposed is that of organizing units around universal cultural topics such as education, recreation, or economic systems. This technique may be facilitated by the development of files into which teachers and students put any materials relevant to the topic. The third change suggests reorganizing course content around concepts such as nationalism. Vocabulary and grammatical structures would be taught in relation to the global issue under study. For example, a pattern drill on possessive pronouns could correspond to a study of personal possessions. Strasheim's (100) idea of curricular complements furthers the interdisciplinary practice of global education. With this approach, teachers from various departments jointly decide on a global topic to which each discipline can contribute. In treating the topic of food, for example, Strasheim suggests that foreign language teachers can teach table manners, meals, and eating habits; home economics teachers can work with students to prepare foreign foods; and social studies teachers can deal with the food chain, food quality, and the specific foods people choose.

The three interdisciplinary approaches discussed above all demand that the language teacher take the initiative in talking to teachers in other departments. If the programs are presented as mutually beneficial, other teachers may be more eager to collaborate. In addition to being offered as individual courses, each of the approaches can be topically structured as units integrated into a basic course (Jorstad, 60). This organization allows the teacher time to gather materials and sources for a full-length course. Logan (68) suggests allowing students to follow a course of a certain difficulty level with another course of different content but the *same* difficulty level. Adapting this idea to the interdisciplinary approaches could relieve some of the tension felt in trying to retain student enrollment over three or four years. After finishing Level II, a student could leave the language department for a course in data processing and return a semester later, again at Level II but with an emphasis on business careers. Currently, such a student would probably be lost to the language department.

Besides supporting student enrollment in language classes, interdisciplinary approaches, although requiring time for preparation and collection of materials, can be professionally rewarding as teachers fulfill their responsibility of preparing students for life. This responsibility also means that language teachers must identify languages of importance and train people in them. World trends today indicate a growing need for languages beyond French, German, and Spanish, languages such as Japanese for commerce, Russian and Arabic for international relations, and Hmong, Vietnamese, Cambodian, and Chinese for work in social service organizations. Forward-looking teachers and prospective teachers would do well to become prepared in these languages so that the profession can offer them to students.

Instructional alternatives

The broad purpose of this chapter is to identify for teachers a range of ways to alter the educational environment in order to meet student needs. Therefore, four instructional strategies are treated: suggestopedia, counseling-learning, the Silent Way, and cooperative learning, the first three of which are extensively reviewed by Stevick (97). Recognizing that each of these strategies reaches beyond methodology into areas such as philosophy, sociology, and psychology of learning, I use the term *instructional strategy* because their primary impact is on the "how" of presenting material.

Suggestopedia. Lozanov (69) is the originator of suggestopedia and Bancroft (5), Racle (80), and Schaefer (87) have summarized the method for language teachers and reported on efforts to adapt it to North American education. According to the theory of suggestology, learning engages the unconscious as well as the conscious faculties. If the unconscious mind is tense or constricted by social norms that tell students they can learn only so much so fast, then learning is indeed hampered. However, if these psychic tensions can be removed and kept away, students can learn more in a shorter period of time. Suggestopedia accomplishes this by a combination of intensive time periods, a secure atmosphere, rhythmic breathing exercises, and baroque music.

The method is intensive and is designed for three- or four-hour sessions five to six days a week, ideally with a group of six males and six females. A secure atmosphere derives from confidence in the teacher and removal of personal risk to the student. The teacher, who preferably has special training in acting and psychology, assumes the role of benevolent dictator with unquestionable authority and unbeatable competence. Upon entering the classroom, the students leave behind their identities, and each one becomes a new person with a new name, history, and occupation. This new identity helps to reduce inhibitions and is frequently prestigious and/or interesting. Thus, students are proud of and engaged in learning about their new personality and role as well as those of the other students. The personal anonymity frees the students from concern over the self and provides a protective shield. The fault for linguistic errors can be shifted from the self to the character one plays in the classroom. A soft, pleasant, and cheerful room decor enhances the secure climate.

Suggestopedia's instructional procedure consists of three distinct parts. First is a review of the preceding day's work through conversations, games, skits, and so forth. Lozanov prefers these more active techniques and does not employ rote structure drills. During this review, the native language is kept to a minimum. Second, new material is introduced in a fairly traditional manner using dialogues centered on situations with which students are familiar. Several major grammatical features may be introduced along with perhaps two hundred new vocabulary items. Learning this quantity of material is made possible by the third stage, which is the unique one.

The séance, as the third stage is called, is divided into active and passive parts and aims at unconscious memorization of the new material. During the active part, the teacher reads the text with designated intonation in time with the students' defined breathing rhythm. The students assume a yoga posture and practice yoga breathing to the count of eight. They follow the printed dialogue, divided into groups of three lines, while the teacher reads each group aloud three times, first in a normal tone of voice, then in a persuasive whisper, finally in a loud, authoritative manner. The native-language translation is read in a matter-of-fact, unobtrusive manner. The passive section combines baroque music with an artistic rendering of the text. Baroque music is selected because of its steady, predictable rhythm and soothing continuo accompaniment. This passive or concert section consists of three parts. First, there is a brief baroque music introduction. Second, students breathe in rhythm with a slow baroque movement while the teacher interprets the dialogue emotionally and artistically. Third, brisk baroque music draws the students out of their relaxed state. This tapping of unconscious resources during the séance has been reported to accelerate the quantity of language learned, the quality of language use, and the long-term retention of what has been learned (Herr, 50; Lozanov, 69; Ostrander and Schroeder, 76; Racle, 80, 81; Schaefer, 87).

Despite the success of suggestopedia, the method may find only restricted classroom application. Suggestopedic teachers require dramatic ability and specialized training in the method and related disciplines. The Eastern yoga influence may not appeal to some Western students. Racle (81) advises that suggestopedia be implemented only as a total method and that it not be modified. However, the intensive time structure makes its adoption within the traditional one-hour, five-days-a-week instructional setting impossible. Nevertheless, some of the principles of suggestopedia could be successfully adapted to the American classroom. Chief among these principles are the following: 1) the more competence a teacher exhibits, the more secure the students will be and thus the more they will learn and 2) the less tense students are and the more they are convinced of their own capacity for learning, the greater and the swifter will be their learning.

Counseling-learning. Counseling-learning, like suggestopedia, aims at creating an atmosphere of security for the students, but it takes a different approach to that end. The psychologist Curran (21) pioneered counseling-learning and its application to the teaching of second languages. *Understanding* is a key concept of counseling-learning. It is expressed by the teacher's 1) accepting the students without judgment or an effort to control, 2) believing that students are capable of integrating the self harmoniously, and 3) briefly sharing personal experiences and values when they relate to the classroom discussion. With this posture, the teacher-counselor-knower structures a learning situation which Curran (21) summarizes in the acronym SARD, representing the concepts security, aggressiveness/attention, reflection/retention, and discrimination.

The first word represented in the acronym is *security*. The more secure students feel, the more ready they are to risk new learning. Security is assured by the understanding atmosphere and progresses through five stages. These stages differ by source of security rather than degree of security. Initially, the knower, who possesses the sought-after knowledge, provides security to the learners. The teacher closely manages the amount of new material presented to the students, corrects errors with care not to upset the accepting and nonjudgmental quality of the classroom, and ensures that students grasp the language elements introduced. Gradually, the learners attempt new learning on their own, creating previously untried sentences, formulating grammar generalizations, transposing adjectives into adverbs into verbs. Throughout these intermediate stages of security, the students depend less and less on the teacher, needing only to be restrained from taking a wrong direction or to have major errors corrected. Finally, the learners become independent of the teacher for their security. They enter into a more mature and mutual relationship with the teacher and are free to become fluent in their new language skill.

Secure learners trust their own *aggressiveness* (*A* in the acronym), growing in courage to ask questions and make suggestions, thereby investing something of the self in the learning process. The assertive learner may not only explore the language, by for example, seeking new vocabulary to express ideas in a writing assignment or by wrestling with a new structure in discussion, but that learner may also suggest alternative teaching/learning techniques to the teacher or reflect on the effectiveness of the techniques applied. Through such assertions, learners put a part of themselves into the language-learning task; they make an investment. Investment involves risk, but it also creates commitment. Therefore, *A* also stands for the *attention* students more willingly give to material in which they have some investment, a share of themselves.

R symbolizes *reflection*, which is of two types. First, accepting that feelings and learning are related, the teacher-counselor reflects back to the students their own feelings about the learning experience. In doing this, the teacher does not judge the feelings but merely states them as facts. Whether the feelings are those of frustration and anger or of satisfaction and pleasure, the teacher reports them back to the students in a supportive manner. Second, the students reflect on the content, examining it through different media or from different perspectives. Students might listen to an audiotape of their discussion or read their own written material. *Retention*, also an element of the *R*, is a result of reflection and signifies that the students can now retrieve and use the new material. As the students reflect on the content and view it from different perspectives, the network of associations grows and the new material becomes embedded in the mind of the learner. Thus, after students work with the formation of questions with *est-ce que* in French to the point of retention, this structure can be easily retrieved and applied in later discussion or when learning interrogatives such as *pourquoi, quand*, and *qui*. This example suggests the final letter, *D*, which stands for *discrimination*. Discrimination involves comparing new knowledge with prior knowledge in order to tell them apart. It also implies the appropriate integration of new knowledge with old knowledge, as in the preceding example of interrogative structure.

The principles of counseling-learning have been applied to second-language education under a model called Community Language Learning, which utilizes a three-phase instructional process: investment, reflection, and discrimination. In this model, a secure environment for learning is established as students sit in a tight circle with the teacher outside. A student makes a statement in English, the teacher translates it into the target language, and the student repeats the target language version while recording it on tape. Through this procedure, students make a concrete contribution, which immediately results in a taped target-language dialogue of student-designated content in student voices. This initial investment phase is followed by teacher reflection on student reactions and by reflection on the content through techniques such as listening to the tape, writing out the dialogue, and silent thinking. The final discrimination phase is carried out through small-group discussion, construction of charts, and differentiation of word segments through color-coding. The principles of counseling-learning, however, with their conscious orientation toward the learner, are potentially adaptable beyond the Community Language Learning model to a variety of methodologies.

Counseling-learning shares some of the drawbacks of problem-posing education. Goals are stated only very generally: communication and the study of grammar. Clear, detailed, specific objectives are absent. Since the content is student-generated, there are no systematic materials; this places on the teacher the burden of checking for adequate exposure to grammar and vocabulary. The concept of security in counseling-learning also generates problems. First, although the intent is for steadily decreasing reliance on the teacher-counselor and increasing student independence, this situation is difficult to achieve in practice. If it were truly achieved, the teacher may feel threatened by the students' self-reliance and suffer from an "empty classroom syndrome" just as a mother might experience the "empty nest." Second, the concept of security contained in counseling-learning is a matter of maturity, a person's maturity depends of many influences in addition to those found in the classroom. In any case, maturity is gained slowly. The security desired by counseling-learning, therefore, could best be considered a goal of a total foreign-language sequence or program rather than of a semester or year-long course.

The Silent Way. The teacher in the Silent Way assumes even a lower profile than does the teacher in counseling-learning. Gattegno (33, 34) has directed two books on the Silent Way to teachers of second language. These books are summarized by Stevick (97) along with examples of the method's implementation. The Silent Way is built on a two-step learning theory. The first step is a conscious intellectual commitment to mental action. The second step, which may take place during the unconscious state of sleep, is that of retaining or assimilating the product of the conscious mental action. Meaningful practice improves fluency and secures its retention over a period of time. The goal of this sequence is for learners to internalize the knowledge so that it becomes an active and accessible resource to be drawn from within the learner. In order to achieve this goal, the teacher must perceive and promote in learners the qualities of independence, autonomy, and responsibility.

The Silent Way thus introduces a model of learning from which practitioners have derived instructional procedures commonly used in courses based on that model. Initially, instruction concentrates on pronunciation. The teacher might write on the board a target language word that speakers of English could be expected to pronounce correctly or nearly correctly (e.g., *dos* in Spanish). Or, the teacher could use two charts, one in English and one in the target language. Sounds that are the same in the two languages would be color-coded the same. Thus, the English *I* or *eye* and the *ei-* in the German *eins* might all appear in red. For sounds that are totally unfamiliar, the teacher would provide a single, clear example, requiring students to concentrate on the one model. Students would repeat the sound based on the one model, thus providing each other with reinforcement of correct pronunciation.

Similar procedures are employed to introduce common words. Here, much use is made of a set of color rods of various lengths which can be manipulated to stimulate speech. For example, the teacher could place the orange rod next to other orange objects, give one example of the target language word for *orange* and lead students to produce the word for *orange*. Further manipulation could stimulate the students to combinations such as *one orange rod*. Likewise, the terms for spatial relationships (e.g., *over, under,* and *next to,* and adjectives such as *long, tall, short,* and *square*) can be easily communicated through manipulation of the rods. Just as color-coding can be used to represent sounds in the teaching of pronunciation, so can the rods symbolize grammatical features such as prefixes, suffixes, and endings. The teacher can then direct students to proper case endings in German or verb endings in French. However, it would seem necessary for a teacher to gain a good deal of training and skill in order to apply the Silent Way to the teaching of a total grammar in all its complexity, if such a broad application is, in fact, possible. The rods can also be used to symbolize other nouns. One rod could be designated *house* and another could be designated *car,* leading to produce "The car is in front of the house." The addition of other realia to the rods could enrich the noun vocabulary introduced as well as the methodology itself.

Throughout the instructional process, the teacher remains essentially silent, giving perhaps only an occasional model. In the Silent Way, students do the talking and the recombining of material. Under the skillful direction of the teacher, they provide each other with correct models and encourage each other's initiative. The Silent Way thus fosters interdependence and cooperation among students at the same time that it promotes independence from the teacher and reliance on what one knows to learn what one does not know.

Cooperative learning. Interdependence and cooperation are also goals of cooperative learning. Cooperative learning has been promoted by Johnson and Johnson (57) with accounts of its implementation in a second-language classroom supplied by Gunderson (43) and Gunderson and Johnson (44). It accepts that learning grows primarily out of peer interaction rather than in the adult-child relationship of the traditional classroom (Johnson, 55). The distinguishing element of this instructional approach is the concept of goal structure, of which there are three types. An individualized goal structure specifies that one student's achieving of a goal has no effect on and is not affected by other students' goal attainment. In a competitive goal structure, a student's chance of reaching a goal increases as other students fall farther from the goal, as when grading is done on a curve. Under a cooperative goal structure, a student's possibility of achieving a goal is increased as other students are successful at achieving the goal. Cooperation and intergroup competition may be combined to form a fourth goal structure (Johnson et al., 58).

The crux of cooperative learning is the assignment of a group goal, such as a project or high group test performance, coupled to a reward for group achievement (Johnson and Johnson, 56). This cooperative interrelatedness may be achieved through 1) physical reorganization of the classroom, 2) assignment of responsibilities to students, 3) devising joint learning activities, and 4) grading on a mutual basis. The cooperative classroom is organized into small groups of five to six students per group. Students are assigned to groups, which are arranged so that group members are close together while the groups are separated from each other. Each group carries a responsibility it must fulfill for the total class such as handing out or collecting materials, keeping track of classroom items, acting as receptionist to visitors, monitoring the tidiness of the room, and organizing class activities. Within groups, each individual has a task: taking attendance, recording information, cleaning up, and distributing materials and assignments.

Certain learning activities are done cooperatively. If the teacher has carefully specified the instructional objectives, appropriate materials can be supplied to the students and the group task or goal can be clearly explained. Students may help each other on worksheets, projects, conversation practice, and studying for tests. Gunderson (43) integrates these cooperative activities with intergroup competitive activities and individual projects and tests. With evaluation based on a criterion-referenced system, a student's grade to a certain extent becomes dependent on other group members' success. One grade may be assigned for the total group performance and recorded for each group member. Alternatively, a particular grade may be an average of the student's individually earned grade and the average grade of all the students in the group. If a group has grades of A, C, B, A, and C, the average group grade is a B. When the individual and group grades are combined, the students would receive grades of B+, C+, B, B+, and C+, respectively.

The intent of mutual grading is to motivate students to achieve and to encourage them to help each other to study and learn the material. In reference to the example given, however, while the student whose grade went from a C to a C+ might have no complaints, the student, as well as the student's parents, whose grade changed from A to B+ may question the grading philosophy. This issue could be addressed by 1) reexplaining and reaffirming the cooperative plan, 2) introducing cooperative activities well ahead of cooperative grading, 3) using cooperative activities with a reward other than a grade, or 4) rewarding group activities with an individual grade as well as a group grade. In addition to traditional evaluation, students can participate in evaluating group progress by using checklist or discussion methods. The teacher gains insight into group progress by careful observation of students' interaction and reflecting on the instances when it becomes necessary to intervene to help a group solve a problem.

Although convinced that cooperative learning should predominate in the classroom, Johnson and Johnson (56, 57) advise the appropriate classroom use of competitive and individual as well as cooperative goal structures. Competitive drills and games conducted in an atmosphere of fun can stimulate students and provide variety in activities. Simple skills can be learned individually and later put to use in a cooperative setting. In the foreign language classroom, speaking skills can be practiced individually with a tape recorder and applied in a group conversation, skit, or program. As a social approach that fosters interaction among students, cooperative learning may be particularly adaptable to second-language learning, in which the ultimate goal is interaction.

Summary and conclusion

Every second language classroom contains a unique set of learners, available materials, physical structure, and teacher, all of which receive further definition by the total school and community surroundings. Furthermore, the classroom and its surroundings constantly change as events take place: a new principal favors innovative methods, a housing project is replaced by high-rise apartments that bring a new clientele, or the central office announces a cut in textbook purchasing. Accommodation of this individuality, complexity, and mutability requires the ability to adjust and combine alternatives to suit the particular learning situation.

Adjustment of an alternative is achieved by altering one or more of the structural variables as suggested above. With regard to combining alternatives, the alternatives should not be considered mutually exclusive. Rather, the teacher should select elements from them to produce the most advantageous and appropriate combination. This eclecticism could result in a cooperative, problem-posing design for global education, cross-disciplinary career education, or a systems-behavioral format for a functional-notional syllabus.

When making these selections and combinations, teachers, department heads, and supervisors must remember that each alternative grew as an answer to a certain set of questions. No one alternative is *the* answer. Each alternative promotes a unique instructional process, which reveals a belief about the learners and how they learn, and aims at a particular set of desired outcomes. The foreign-language coordinator who imposes the cooperative model on a districtwide basis may obtain disappointing results in the one school located in a community where parents foster highly competitive attitudes. A department head writing an experimental curriculum will find that problem-posing education cannot be combined with suggestopedia because the former advances an active, decision-making student role while the latter calls for a passive-receptive student posture. A teacher who is considering counseling-learning but is convinced that the teacher must retain a very directive role in the classroom and in the determination of content would achieve better results by acting on the latter beliefs. The teacher who holds cultural understanding as a high priority may well incorporate global education into the curriculum. Thus, the alternatives selected must be appropriate to the situation, the people involved in the situation, and the desired learning outcomes. For a combination of alternatives to be viable, the alternatives must be congruent and compatible.

The creative exercise and mixture of alternatives holds promise for addressing classroom problems. The content alternatives may attract and retain students with a broader range of interests. Problem posing and functional-notional approaches, with their union of culture and language, provide authenticity and relevance as well as a structure amenable to multi-level classes. Scheduling problems can receive relief from the flexibility offered by a systems-behavioral design. Through the instructional alternatives, the teacher can respond to the personality and mood of a class.

While the innovations of the late '60s and early '70s grew mainly out of the industrial model, the alternatives of the '80s are tempered by a humanistic appeal. For language educators, this humanism involves an appreciation of language as more than a marvel of structure: language is interaction and communication. This communicative nature of language specifies a direction for future curriculum development: the union of grammatical, cultural, and functional syllabuses with a design that accommodates this holistic view of language.

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5

The Problem of Articulation

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Introduction

A tenth-grade French teacher reteaches students who had two years of French in junior high school with the same materials they used previously. She says these students learned nothing.

* *

A German professor in a large university complains that high-school students of German, who studied the language for three years, "have wasted their time playing games," thereby not learning the grammar they should know in order to be placed in the appropriate section of German 0104.

* *

Students in XYZ High School, Spanish IV, moving to a new school because of a desegregation order in a metropolitan school district, find they are incapable of understanding the students in Spanish classes on their same level in that school because they did not learn to understand the spoken language in their former program.

* *

Students of French from two elementary schools in the same school district find themselves in the same junior high school class. One group of students learned how to speak and understand, the other spent its time learning about France, its people, and its influences. Students in the latter group do not speak and understand spoken French very well. The teacher attempts to deal with the situation by putting the groups together and using one set of materials.

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While these scenarios are hypothetical, they represent realities discussed privately, in conference discussion sessions, and at rare times in the professional literature. What has been described is one of the most difficult, constant, and perplexing problems in foreign language education, that of articulation.

This chapter examines the problem of articulation, discusses the attempts that have been made to resolve the problem, and suggests new proposals for its resolution.

Definitions

In order that the problem of articulation be understood, it is necessary to define the major terms relevant to its discussion. These terms are: *articulation, horizontal articulation, vertical articulation, inter-/multidisciplinary articulation, level, learner outcomes,* and *performance objectives.*

Articulation

In Webster's New World Dictionary (Guralnik, 16), one of the meanings of the verb, *articulate,* is "to arrange in connected sequences . . . [to *articulate* a science program for all grades]." Thus *articulation* in this sense is the sequencing of a curriculum in a subject area field, such as a foreign or second language. The literature on articulation in a foreign or second language does not show unanimity in the use of the term except in recent times. Brooks (7) uses the term *continuity* in place of *articulation.* It applies to only one aspect of articulation. However, the dimensions given to the term *continuity,* as used by Brooks, certainly apply to articulation in the current sense of the term. He indicates that there are three important factors involved: 1) the *students,* who change in many ways as they move through the school curriculum; 2) the *content of the curriculum,* which deals with the sequence of language learning activities, the amount of time for learning, and the intermingling and spiralization of the different syllabuses in the language-learning program (linguistic, communicative, cultural, and educational); and 3) the *total school program* in the particular locale in which the foreign- or second-language curriculum is situated, as well as how that curriculum is suited to and characteristic of the life of that school. Rivers (33) seems also to have limited the concept of articulation in the same manner as Brooks. She discusses articulation in a FLES context as being the continuance of a program from level to level, suggesting that teachers build on previous learning so that learning achieved in one level is expanded in the next. Scherer (35), however, does use the terms vertical and horizontal in relation to the supervision of a foreign language program in the elementary school.

Lafayette (22), whose treatment of the concept is the most complete in the literature, argues that articulation is a relationship among elements, a linking of what has been learned before to current learning to that learning which will take place in the future; it is this linking that offers success or failure to a foreign language program. Lafayette isolates three subcategories of terms related to articulation: *internal articulation, sequential articulation,* and *external articulation.* His terms are not used in this chapter, however, because they are not the standard terms used in the field of curriculum. Instead, the terms *horizontal, vertical,* and *inter-/multidisciplinary articulation* will be used.

Horizontal articulation

This term refers to a coordination of any curriculum across the many or several classes that are simultaneously attempting to accomplish the same objectives. For example, if French I in any high school has two or three sections taught by different teachers, a statement of horizontal articulation would contain previous outcomes agreed upon for all students in French I. Teachers would also use a set of common teaching materials for all students, yet each teacher would be allowed the flexibility to deal with the needs of the individuals in the different classes. Instructional strategies would also be coordinated so that the learning styles of different learners could be accommodated. These same conditions could apply to the college or university program where there may be ten sections of French 1001. Here, too, a statement of expectations for student end-of-course achievement, coordinated materials, common instructional strategies, and evaluation devices that examine achievements across all groups are important to the success of all students within the various sections of the same course.

Vertical articulation

Vertical articulation refers to the continuity of a program throughout the length of the program; this is basically the term defined by Brooks. It deals with the internal flow of a program from its beginning to its completion. In a nine-year school program, student progress would relate to the planning of each year from the program's beginning in the elementary school to its final year in the senior high school. Planning consists of agreement on the goals of the entire program, learning outcomes for each year of the program, choice of materials that relate to the goals and learner outcomes of the entire program, instructional strategies to help the student to achieve stated outcomes, and evaluation strategies to examine the achievement of expectations each year.

Inter-/multidisciplinary articulation

The terms *interdisciplinary* and *multidisciplinary articulation* relate to the capability of a second language as a school subject to associate with other disciplines in the curriculum. It is fair to suggest that a second language has probably more capacity in this regard than any other area of the curriculum. Interdisciplinary articulation, the relationship of at least two curricular areas, exists in several forms in school second language programs. Within the language program itself, such articulation takes place when the content of language learning (phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicon) is related to the first language. Such articulation is also evident when cultural topics (mores, institutions, values) are included directly in the language curriculum. The inclusion of literature study in a second language program is yet another example of articulation within the language program. But interdisciplinary articulation can also occur within curricular areas outside the language program. Ort and Smith (27) describe several situations where area studies, humanities, history, and other subjects are each individually articulated with second language study. Multidisciplinary articulation occurs when several areas of the curriculum are coordinated with each other. Strasheim (40) shows how this concept works in a middle school curriculum in the relationship of social studies, foreign language, and home economics in dealing with food and related concepts.

Level

Currently, this term is equated with a year of language study without defining what that year of language study actually contains. The concept has never been carefully defined, although Brooks (7) defined it as an amount of learning that could take place in a secondary school class, meeting five days a week for forty minutes each day. The *level,* as it is currently used, has essentially no meaning. For example, French I, as a title, is no more meaningful than French IV, except that it shows progression, because the course titles, as well as what is to be learned in the courses, are undefined. It would be far better if the idea of French I, German III, and Spanish V were to be eliminated for specific course titles. Those course titles should be related to specific learner outcomes that could be defined and guaranteed as the minimal expectations from a course of study or a program. Course titles could then be more specifically oriented, such as "Reading Newspaper French," "German for Communication," "Spanish for Business," and "Arabic for the Study of Islam."

Learner outcomes

Learner outcomes are statements of expected achievements that every student could demonstrate at the end of a program. These outcomes define the overall nature and content of the subject area and establish minimum expectations for students as they finish a program. As indicated in a State of Ohio Department of Education document (10), such statements 1) communicate expectations to parents, students, teachers, administrators, and others; 2) identify the needed knowledge, skills, and judgments that students must demonstrate at the completion of a program; 3) offer a cohesive framework for learning, instruction, and teaching, thereby avoiding fragmentation. Examples of learner outcomes are provided here from a Minnesota State Department of Education document (38) about foundation learnings in modern foreign languages:

Listening (Language Use)

4. Students understand the speaker of the language who uses pronunciation, intonation, and pitch when conversing on subjects familiar to the student's everyday experiences such as school life, family life, sports, and leisure-time activities.

Speaking (Language Use)

4. Students adapt learned grammatical patterns, vocabulary, and idiomatic expressions to express personal ideas, feelings, needs, and desires.

Reading (Language Use)

8. Students use a variety of reading techniques for different purposes, for example, skimming, following directions, reading for the general or central idea, for details, to predict outcomes, to form sensory impressions, reading critically, collecting data for organization and combination.

Writing (Language Use)

6. Students express personal ideas in a friendly letter or postcard using appropriate headings, date, familiar greetings, and complimentary close.

Culture

4. Discovery and Exploration of Another Culture
   b. As a result of culture study students value:
      1) contributions of other cultures to life in the United States
      2) an individual's ability to adjust or to adapt to cultural change (within a culture, from culture to culture)
      3) learning about another culture.

Knowledge About Language

2. Sound Symbol Association
   Students know that the relationship of written symbols to oral symbols differs from language to language.

Learning a Language

2. Language Learning
   b. Students know that the inevitable errors made in language learning are not evidence of failure, but can be used to improve their ability to control that language. They recognize that continued practice helps them to communicate more effectively.

Guntermann's (15) discussion of learning outcomes expands in modest detail on such outcomes within four principal goals: "1) communicative functioning ability; 2) intercultural and international understanding; 3) a knowledge of language and how it works, and the development of effective learning strategies; 4) career awareness." She outlines a set of outcomes for different levels of language learning (Waystage I—Survival Level, Waystage II—Expansion Level, and Threshold Level—Basic Communicative Proficiency). The set of suggested general outcomes, general because they could be adapted to any language, begins to clarify the term *level* in that any and all students would meet these minimum outcomes as a result of finishing the level. In this way, the levels that Brooks suggested could have clear definition. The specification of learning outcomes in levels as suggested by Guntermann is clearly the direction of the future. Its impetus comes from the work of the Council of Europe in its desire to help adults, mainly foreign workers, develop a threshold level of communicative ability in English, French, German, and Spanish. (See van Ek, 45, for an example in English.)

Performance objectives

Most schools are involved in the writing of performance objectives for the measurement of student achievement and the evaluation of curricula. Such statements attempt to define according to observable behavior the activity of students in the study of language, culture, grammar, and the language-learning process in general. Banathy and Lange (1) suggest that such objectives should have certain characteristics. They believe performance objectives should state the context in which the student is to perform, the specific language features to be acquired, the degree of accuracy and fluency to be exhibited, and the range of behaviors that the learner is expected to exhibit. The writing of a curriculum according to performance objectives is related to the major model of curriculum building in our industrialized society: the systems-behavioral model, which takes its cue from industrial development and military training. Crawford-Lange (11), in another chapter in this volume, discusses other curricular alternatives that do not rely on performance objectives or the systems-behavioral model.

An example of an objective that meets the requirements of Banathy and Lange is taken from their book (1):

> 2. *Speaking* (Elementary School Level, end of three year program)
>
> Within the context of typical everyday situations (in school and at home) and within the production repertoire of native speakers of their age, but using (1) only kernel sentences, interrogative and negative transformations (2) of the optional forms, and (3) a lexicon of not more than 500 words, students are expected to generate:
>
> 2.1 short (up to six or seven syllables) grammatically permissible utterances with a normal rate of speed, in a manner comprehensible to the native speaker, by:
>
>   2.1.1 answering questions in reference to concrete phenomena, immediately observable in the environment;
>   2.1.2 describing a picture;
>   2.1.3 describing their own actions or those of others around them;
>   2.1.4 producing simple (kernel and negative type) transformations, substitutions, expansion, replacements;
>   2.1.5 retelling a short dialogue (three or four exchanges) or short story of five or six sentences.

Basically the example above outlines the content of instruction in two ways: 1) It states needed general language elements (kernel sentences, interrogative and negative transformations, lexicon, six to seven syllable utterances) to be learned; 2) It suggests a progression of specific performances to be achieved by the learner, which in this case relate to the language functions of imparting and seeking factual information (identifying and reporting). For further discussion of language functions, see van Ek (46).

The articulation problem

This problem, as has already been suggested, is a difficult and longstanding one. In most of the literature on the topic, the issue is articulation between the public schools and the colleges and universities. Castañeda (8) is mystified by the lack of articulation among FLES, secondary school, junior college, and college/university opportunities for foreign-language study. He suggests that if we take some *distanz* from our personal biases toward either language or literature study, we are sure to be struck by the problem. He feels, as does Lafayette (22), that solving the problem is the key to the success of foreign-language programs at all levels.

As an area of research in foreign-language education, articulation as a problem has reveived almost no attention. Halff and Frisbie (18), noting the frustration of secondary-school teachers of foreign languages and the problems created for college instructors as a result of the lack of coordination, conducted a study of articulation and placement between high school and college French at the University of Illinois. Until 1975, it appears that Halff (17) was the only person to approach this issue from a research point of view. It is still essentially unexplored.

Webb (47) describes a survey completed under the aegis of the Standing Committee on Articulation of the New York State Association of Foreign Language Teachers (NYSAFLT) to examine articulation between secondary schools and colleges. Results indicated that 50 percent of secondary schools claimed regular contact with colleges, although it was also shown that in the case of 79 percent of the secondary schools, the colleges did not keep them informed in return and did not show any interest in their programs. Fifty percent of the four-year colleges reported they were in constant contact with secondary schools, while only 25 percent of the two-year colleges made that claim. College personnel were also found to be deficient in other areas, such as attending language fairs and knowing the background of their students.

In a 1970 article, Moore (25), commenting on the lack of cooperation among schooling levels, labeled the situation "The Articulation Jungle." This article deals mainly with articulation from level to level either within a school program, or from secondary school or junior college to a four-year college or university program.

The representative literature suggests the nature of the problem. It also points to the problem as basically one of vertical articulation, specifically that between secondary schools and colleges (Proceedings, 30). However, in this section, both horizontal and vertical articulation will be examined according to specificity in stating outcomes, different teaching strategies to accomplish the outcomes, differing materials, and the need for systematic evaluation. Inter-/multidisciplinary articulation will be discussed outside of these categories.

Horizontal articulation

Horizontal articulation, especially in the schools and universities, cannot occur when there is little agreement on outcomes, teaching strategies, materials, and evaluation procedures within a level. In most instances, the lack of articulation may be caused by the instructor who makes decisions deliberately without consultation, perhaps in the name of academic freedom. The problem can be exemplified as follows:

A lack of definition of learner outcomes across several sections of the same course. In an elementary-school or a middle-school setting where French is offered in grades four, five, and six or in five, six, seven, and eight in more than one section, one teacher in grades four and five stresses global education more than language. Another teacher at the same level is helping students with reading, expecting that certain reading skills will have been developed in French by the end of grade five.

Secondary-school second-year German students, all of whom have basically the same ability and goals, are divided into three sections and taught by two different teachers. Teacher A teaches two sections, which include elements of an advanced placement program: poets of German Romanticism. Teacher B's section is audio-lingual. The two teachers rarely talk about the program. Students from all three sections will be in one section of third-year German, taught by yet another teacher who stresses grammar.

Eight sections of beginning college Spanish are taught by eight different instructors, all of whom have different expectations of their students. One offers a course in translation, another believes in oral communication, a third is preparing students to read literature in upper division courses, and so forth.

Many different teaching strategies do not relate to the same outcomes. If common outcomes for a particular level have been agreed upon by several instructors, then there must also be agreement on teaching strategies (or at least the use of similar teaching strategies) that work toward the same basic outcomes.

For example, if communicative outcomes are agreed upon for any program, then the methodology must build toward those outcomes. Let's look at the following situation: In program X, we have three teachers who have agreed in principle to a set of communicative outcomes. Each teacher, however, wants to teach in a way that is personally most comfortable. Teacher A teaches for these outcomes with a cognitive code (grammar, translation, reading) strategy; teacher B approaches the same outcomes with an audio-lingual strategy; and teacher C stresses categories of communicative behavior.

If the studies of contrastive strategies tell us anything, they tell us that students learn what they have been taught (Chastain and Woerdehoff, 9; Scherer and Wertheimer, 36; Smith, 37). Thus, in the case described above, it is entirely possible that students using the cognitive code strategy will be able to talk about and analyze rules for communicating in the language, translate, and read written versions of oral communication: but they may not be able to communicate very well orally. Audio-lingual students would be able to manipulate structures and phrases with good pronunciation; but in general they would not be able to respond or react in an appropriate manner to an actual situation requiring use of the language. It may be that only the students who had been learning communicative behavior would be able to function in situations that had been prepared for them. While this is a generalization, and generalizations do not always hold true, the principle discussed in this case is important: The orientation of similar teaching strategies leads to the desired outcomes only if teachers teach for that outcome. Variance in strategies to reach the outcomes will continue to exist. However, there must be agreement by teachers in a program that the strategies contribute to the student's ability to produce the desired outcome.

Differing Materials. Another issue in horizontal articulation is the use of different learning materials for similar students in multiple sections of the same course. Let's suppose that in a college German program the outcomes agreed upon by all instructors relate to the development during the first quarter of the usual four language activities. Instructors are, however, divided as to the materials used. One group feels very strongly about a text developed in the '60s, now in its third revision, that focuses heavily on the syntax of spoken and written German. It is a compromise text, based partly on a cognitive-code approach to language learning yet given an audio-lingual flavor. The second text, written and published in Germany only very recently, is for adults who must learn German to survive in their jobs. It is oriented to typical language uses: on the train, in stores, on the job, with friends, giving and getting information, expressing like and dislike, showing favor and disdain. The text does not place much stress on manipulation of language structure. Instead, it emphasizes practice of the functional use of language in a realistic context. If materials help students learn what they are taught, then it could appear that both of these texts might be inappropriate. The first text would yield success in manipulating structure, specifically syntax, but not in contributing to listening comprehension or even reading. The second text would offer students an opportunity to understand and say many things in different contexts, but it may have seriously slighted reading and totally ignored writing.

Lack of similar and systematic evaluation procedures. In the definition of any curriculum, there should be agreement not only on outcomes and basic strategies for achieving those outcomes, but also on evaluation procedures that relate to the stated outcomes. In the several sections of the same second-year high-school language program taught by different teachers in which reading outcomes are stressed, translation tests are the rule for one teacher, discrete-point grammar tests are used by another, and dictation tests serve a third. It is entirely possible that all three approaches are useful in testing reading at one time or another for different purposes. The communication to the student in each case, however, is that reading is translating from the target language to English, or learning to pick out the grammar from a reading passage, or writing down the written word from dictation on texts already deciphered. Yet reading as stated in outcomes previously agreed upon for this program may be much more related to process, such as skimming for general meaning, using context and structural cues to guess meaning of words, or for finding information. None of these processes is tested by the procedures used in the situation. The example shows a lack of agreement not only on the kinds of testing procedures used but also on the need to relate evaluation procedures directly to the outcomes.

Vertical articulation

Vertical articulation cannot operate when there is a lack of agreement within a program over the direction of the curriculum or between levels of schooling such as between secondary schools and colleges. Again, we must look at examples of lack of agreement on learner outcomes, on teaching strategies, on materials, and on evaluation procedures in order to see the effects of such a lack.

A lack of definition of learner outcomes among schooling levels. The situation where lack of articulation is most visible and problematic is that between secondary schools and colleges/universities. If a secondary-school four-year French program concentrates on the development of listening and speaking skills, its students may experience difficulty when they enter the local college or university. The college department orients its placement test to reading, translation, and grammar. Incoming students are placed in first-quarter French on the basis of the test results. The two groups of instructors have never met to discuss the placement of students in the college program; as a result, there are hard feelings on both sides. The secondary school people argue that they have been dealing with the needs and interests of students in their program. They accuse the college program of ignoring those needs, not taking student achievement as it is and pushing it further. But—probably most important—they charge the college with placing students in beginning French by concentrating on the wrong outcomes. They feel that oral skills are what the students want; that was the orientation of the secondary school program. The secondary school teachers argue that the interests of these students should be accepted on the college level as well. The college instructors argue that it is obvious the students have learned nothing, since they scored so poorly on the tests. They must start over in order to learn properly. What is important, the college professors say, is the ability to read French; it is something that can be used in later life; oral skills are very quickly and easily forgotten; students should concentrate on what is retained. Neither group understands the other group's concerns or motives.

Let's also look at articulation across levels within a program in this regard. With four levels of German in a suburban metropolitan school district and with these sections being taught by three different teachers (all of whom "do their own thing"), the students are the ones who suffer. They may be taught differently, use different materials, and be tested for different outcomes. In moving from level to level, teachers accuse the teacher at the previous level of teaching the students very little. The students become confused because they think they are learning what they are supposed to learn but in reality they are not. As a result of their confusion with the situation, students become frustrated and drop out of the program to take other electives, which they see as being more focused. The teachers continue to pursue their own objectives, grumbling about each other's intransigence and about the students who do not understand the importance of learning this language.

Many different teaching strategies do not relate to the same outcomes. Just as differing outcomes among levels can cause problems for students, so can the use of many different teaching strategies if these are not oriented to the outcomes agreed upon for the entire program.

Again, this issue is most clearly seen between secondary school and college/university programs. Teaching strategies for a state modern language curriculum have been agreed upon by secondary school teachers of Spanish in that state. The stated program is a three year curriculum leading to specific outcomes which can be guaranteed in the usual four areas of language activity. Tests have been developed to show that students in that state have achieved those outcomes. Teachers have also taken great care to assure each other that strategies they agreed to will be and are being used. The state university Spanish department is happy to see such organization. It has agreed to a set of outcomes in its beginning and intermediate programs similar to those of the secondary schools; it places students with no difficulty in its courses as a result of guaranteed outcomes. Yet students begin to drop out of a couple of sections of intermediate Spanish after five weeks. The department chair examines the situation and finds that two senior professors have departed from the teaching strategies previously agreed to. One is using a review of all of Spanish grammar with a grammar-translation approach; the other has selected poetry as the sole basis to develop reading, the only language activity stressed in the course.

Within a program in one schooling level, the same kind of lack of agreement causes problems for students. Learner outcomes agreed to in the development of the reading process for an entire program can be jeopardized if one teacher chooses to ignore the outcomes, or if teachers choose to use translation throughout the entire program to develop the process when it is defined as hypothesis testing (a process where sensible guessing is fostered by structural, lexical, and experiential cues within the text itself.

Differing materials. It is not possible to argue for the use of exactly the same materials in colleges and universities for students who move from secondary schools to that level, simply because students come from such a variety of schools. However, problems do occur in this area when materials used at the college level emphasize a direction that has not been provided for at the secondary school level. Instructors of intermediate college-level courses, for example, may stress literary readings from different periods of literature. Students transferring to the college from secondary school programs may have concentrated on developing their reading skill with basically nonliterary reading materials. Students may not be psychologically or linguistically ready or mature enough to cope with the assumptions that the instructor has made (consciously or unconsciously) about students' ability to handle such material.

In a self-contained program of language learning within one schooling level, the use of differing materials also causes concern. Outcomes and teaching strategies having been agreed upon in advance, the choice of material using those strategies to reach those outcomes should relate to the directions consciously chosen. Changing materials in the middle of the program on the part of one teacher because the materials "do not seem to be functioning properly" or changing to older materials that do not relate to desired outcomes and teaching strategies can create havoc. Other teachers find that students from this teacher in their classes may not be as capable of performing the expected behaviors as other students. These students in turn are confused and feel frustrated about not being able to perform. Blame is placed on the teacher who changed materials by both students and other teachers.

Lack of similar and systematic testing procedures. Once again this issue appears more marked in vertical articulation situations. Even if there is some agreement on outcomes between colleges and secondary schools, the lack of similar and systematic testing procedures can be a problem for students. If secondary school teachers consistently evaluate the progress of their students in speaking every three months, and if, on the college level, speaking is evaluated by paper and pencil techniques, evaluated on an irregular basis, or not evaluated at all, students will understand that speaking is not really an issue with which to be concerned. They stop studying for speaking outcomes.

In a six-year secondary school Spanish program, lack of systematic testing for listening and speaking suggests to students in the program that those skills are not important, so they concentrate on grammar and reading, areas they know will be tested. Further, in the same program, if teacher A tests listening through immediate translation and teacher B tests the same skill by means of dictation and writing, it may be that students of teacher A will learn to translate simultaneously and those of teacher B will learn to write what they hear almost perfectly. The development of listening in this program may, therefore, not relate very well to the development of the many processes involved in listening, but to a very specialized few processes.

While these examples are basically fictionalized, overemphasized cases intended to dramatize a point, they are certainly within the realm of possibility.

Inter-/multidisciplinary articulation

As a problem, inter-/multidisciplinary articulation is hardly noticed. In most instances, language teachers do not necessarily think of linking language study with other disciplines in the school curriculum. They are mainly intent on students' learning the language. To be certain, there are those teachers of German who occasionally relate to physical education when playing soccer or *Fussball* is to be learned; or in the making of *quiche,* the French teacher may want to use the home economics teacher's ovens; an art teacher may be consulted when the Spanish teacher wishes to make *piñatas* at Christmastime.

These examples show a dual trend. First, they exemplify an attitude toward the separation of learning disciplines, suggesting that each discipline has its own separate view of the world and its own separate methodology by which to examine that world. Second, the examples display a lack of system and regular contact with other disciplines; nor does there seem to be any in-depth treatment of culture-learning issues that draw on disciplines outside language learning for the content of that learning. In addition, teachers are not and cannot always be aware of all the different developments even in their own fields.

These trends are probably best illustrated with the concept of global education (Strasheim, 39, 40). Global education is, according to Hanvey (19), a concept that has five dimensions: awareness of current world conditions and developments; knowledge of the dynamics of the world system; awareness of the choices facing individuals and nations in the broader context of an evolving global system; awareness that the individual's perspective of the world is not shared by all; and an awareness of the diversity of ideas, behavior, and practices in human societies. In its conception, global education is not intended to be inserted as one more subject in the school day. It is to be incorporated into existing school offerings. In many instances, it is assumed that global education is to be dealt with by the social studies department. Yet Strasheim (40) has indicated that there is a place for global education in foreign language programs, although that place is currently somewhat vague and undetermined.

Herein lies the problem. Since the Report of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies (41), which made recommendations concerning the internationalization of the school curriculum, there has been some discussion among those foreign language and social studies teachers who advocate global education. The discussions always seem to be positive, saying essentially that "it would be nice if we could get together on this issue." There is much goodwill, but little action.

It is possible that little action on the foreign-language education side has occurred for reasons that illustrate the inter-/multidisciplinary articulation problem:

1 Language teachers may be unaware of the President's Commission's recommendations and the discussions about introducing global education into the school curriculum.
2 Language teachers are convinced that they must teach language above all else; cultural issues receive attention only when the language has been acquired.
3 The discussions among social studies and foreign language educators, though cordial and respectful, have provided no models for a systematic inclusion of a global perspective in foreign language programs. Strasheim (39, 40) has provided some strategies which, though helpful, are not well known by the majority of teachers in the field.
4 Teachers may feel that they have given a global perspective to their programs because they have stated cultural objectives. However, those objectives may be only superficial aspects of culture, such as the Paris *métro*,

German wines, or Spanish dances, instead of the effects of pollution on the global system as a result of elements being dumped in the Rhône river, the effects of urbanization in the German Federal Republic, or unemployment in Spain as a result of worldwide inflation.

5 Teachers on both sides may be just too scared of each other to begin discussing their subjects when they are not sure there is an outcome that will help them either do or keep their jobs.

Articulation, with either a single discipline outside foreign language learning as a content link to the real world or with several disciplines in the same effort, offers a set of challenges to the profession. When the issues of horizontal and vertical articulation are brought into focus, it is clear that articulation is a significant issue—problematic but not without resolution.

Resolving the articulation problem: Some efforts

Near the end of his article, "Toward an Articulated Curriculum," Lafayette (22) paints a picture of foreign language education at both ends of the continuum. He argues that the fate of the profession is still in its own hands, and that a significant trait of professional unity is an articulated curriculum, articulated horizontally, vertically, and inter-/multidisciplinarily.

Up to this point, the problem has been defined and exemplified. Now, it is important to show how articulation problems have been resolved in foreign-language programs and what new proposals for resolving the problems may be available.

General Resolutions

Dialogue and action. Perhaps the easiest and most frequently used remedy for any articulation problem is *dialogue*. Webb (47) suggests that professional associations and secondary-school and college personnel meet to discuss the issues. There must also be resolve to act on the dialogue—action on the dialogue is as important as the dialogue itself in resolving the problem. Such dialogue can take place in the teachers' lounge, in department meetings, in interdepartmental curriculum discussions. Yet the dialogue must be focused. One way of so doing is to use a curriculum-building process, the product of which may be used as the curriculum itself. Articulation task forces within a school district or state school system as well as between secondary schools and colleges could be appointed not only to talk but to make specific recommendations on the issues of the curriculum and its horizontal and vertical articulation, as well as on placement of students.

The curricular process. Banathy and Lange (1) have interpreted the industrial model of curriculum development for the foreign language profession in suggesting a theoretical framework for such a model. The process outlines the selection and organization of the internal curriculum of a foreign language program by 1) identifying its purposes and objectives, 2) specifying its component categories (phonology, morphology, syntax, culture), 3) characterizing components according to difficulty and similarity to the native language, 4) categorizing and ordering learning items by learning types (Gagné, 13), 5) distributing components into strands, 6) arranging learning items within a unit, 7) presenting or integrating units in the total context, and 8) providing for evaluation of learning as well as that of the system. Phillips (29) puts this process into context with a collection of articles that deal with needs assessment, goal setting, materials, teaching strategies, print and nonprint media, evaluation, examining the results of evaluation, and planning for change.

Many of these same concepts are available in a parallel publication by the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (Born, 4). This general process forces people, if they use it, to think seriously of the nature of the foreign language program. What are its outcomes? How are they developed? What materials contribute to those outcomes? What strategies will help students reach those outcomes? How do we use evaluation to better orient the program to the outcomes? All of these questions entail dialogue among teachers within a level, across levels, among disciplines. Concerted action can cause articulation to take place. Bosworth, Nollendorfs, and Marshall (5) suggest that principles of continuity, flexibility, involvement, and understanding will go a long way toward resolving the tension between the desired goal of a coordinated curriculum and the real world. In particular, they offer some specific suggestions for secondary-college program coordination.

Coordination of programs. Coordination of programs within or across levels and among disciplines is another way of resolving articulation problems. Many state departments of education offer state curricular guidelines such as that of Minnesota (Birkmaier, 3; *Some Essential Learner Outcomes,* 38). Foreign language specialists in these departments work with these guidelines as they administer to the school programs in the state by means of visitation, program evaluation, and aid in curriculum development.

On the school level, depending upon the size of the school district and the number of schools, teachers, and programs, coordination may be achieved by a specially designated coordinator or department chair with released time. It is that person's responsibility to coordinate objectives, teaching strategies, materials, and evaluation across and within levels and with other disciplines. Brannon and Cox (6) give an example of how a foreign language coordinator works with both a council of foreign-language teachers within a county system on issues concerning the program and with local department chairs on individual problems.

Realistically, however, coordination of the foreign language curriculum falls either to a district curriculum generalist or to a principal or assistant principal within a school. This reality does not mean, however, that initiative for coordination cannot be taken by the teachers themselves. It does mean that teachers must work with whoever coordinates the program, whether specialist, department chair, or administrator. In this way, the clientele can be most efficiently served. Otto (28) describes the release of a secondary school teacher for two periods daily, one of which is spent working with eighth-grade students and teachers while the other is devoted to articulation problems at the high school level. Salmon (34) describes the use of an articulation packet that is used to aid articulation between feeder junior high schools and a senior high school. The creation of the packet brought together teachers from all of the schools involved to work on the common problem.

On the college level, the trend in many institutions is to hire an educationist or applied linguist to coordinate the beginning and intermediate (i.e., lower division) language courses. The responsibilities of this individual are many and varied: determination of the curriculum for four semesters or five quarters; hiring, training, and supervising teaching assistants; choosing text materials; creating supplementary materials; determining evaluation procedures; and generally administering the programs. Such positions within language departments indicate the commitment of those departments to the teaching of language. In many instances these positions are tenure-track, with promotion based on teaching, research, and service within the field of pedagogy. Such a step is not only forward-looking, but also extremely wise. It recognizes the articulation problem as well as one potential resolution.

Individualized instruction. Another general approach to the resolution of the articulation problem is both instructional and curricular: individualized instruction. This concept can help resolve articulation problems both within and across schooling levels and among disciplines because it allows students, theoretically at least, to move through a program of learning at their own pace, meeting their own objectives, using materials and a range of subjects or content suited to their individually defined needs. The unfortunate aspect of this is that individualized instruction has never been truly realized; it still exists only in theory. Practice shows that individualization has been largely a matter of pacing. Thus, articulation problems may be resolved with individualization largely in terms of time for learning. A student at some point who does not fit into a particular program may ultimately fit if given the opportunity to adjust to that program through self-paced learning. Logan (24) and Baslow, et al. (2) suggest that articulation across levels becomes easier with the individualization of instruction if outcomes for programs have been specifically defined.

Inter-/multidisciplinary approaches. Articulation of foreign language programs is accomplished by several means. Linder, in Valette (44), describes several ways in which content other than the study of language may be articulated with language study: minicourses of special interest and of a topical nature; bilingual courses in mathematics, social sciences, and science, and so forth; special programs such as French for business and Spanish for nursing. Courses of longer duration, semester or full-year, could be offered on the college/university level, such as *Die Geschichte Deutschlands des Zwanzigstenjahrhunderts*. The course could be offered with a department of history. These suggestions for interdisciplinary articulation can provide content for language learning. They proceed in a reasonable direction with apparent depth and system.

Rivers (32) argues that in the future inter-/multidisciplinary programs will have to deal with global awareness and global interdependence. Foreign language programs, then, will require some restructuring and reorientation, and even retraining of teachers, in order to provide students with appropriate outcomes. As mentioned earlier, this approach to articulation may relate to the resolution of a broad range of curricular issues.

The concept of global education could resolve multidisciplinary articulation as several disciplines work together on a more total school curricular approach as suggested by Strasheim (40). In this manner, and with the aid of Strasheim's examples, each area makes its own curricular contribution to concepts or themes. It is not just that the social studies, music, physical education, and art programs would be articulated with the foreign language program, they would all be linked to each other in a more complete manner. Yet they would each remain separate, contributing both system and depth to the multidisciplinary effort.

Textbook adoption. In several states and many school districts, textbook adoption is a means of articulating the curriculum. Since in most elementary, secondary, and college/university programs the curriculum is the textbook, this means of articulation is a logical one. Depending upon circumstances, both state and local education agencies may choose both main and supplementary text materials every five to seven years. In some instances only one text will be chosen for all teachers of a particular language in the school district, yet a variety of supplementary materials could also be available. In this case, all teachers would, in theory at least, be teaching from the same materials and have the opportunity to work out the details of a coordinated curriculum using the same text. A majority vote of teachers in the district decides the text. In other instances, there may be a variety of main texts. Articulation in these cases may not be easy. In state adoptions, either pattern could occur.

Text materials alone, however, do not seem to resolve the problem. As stated in Warriner-Burke, et al. (46), it appears that the textbooks provide too much material to be covered in the time allotted for their use, indicating therefore not only the need for more time, but also more money to purchase extra texts, and more variety in teacher use. In order that texts be used properly, they must be associated with a curricular process and an agreement on learning outcomes for the particular program.

In this regard, Valdman and Warriner-Burke (43) make specific suggestions for reducing the amount of language to be learned through a redesign of text materials. This redesign relates to the concept of *little language*, or the inclusion in materials of language ". . . within which the learner can take the initiative without producing too many errors . . . each item . . . should be psychologically justified, and should be easy to pronounce and spell, morphological features should be regular, and the items should enter into predictable syntactical relationships." Yet it is not only the reduction of the amount of language to be learned that is important, it is rather a total reconceptualization of the curriculum. That reconceptualization must deal with the purposes for which language is to be used, its structure, cultural aspects, and language learning itself. Valdman (42) discusses this reconceptualization from a linguistic orientation but points the direction towards the discussions of the European-American Seminar on syllabus design (Müller, 26), the Curriculum and Materials Development section of the National Conference on Professional Priorities of 1980 in Boston at the ACTFL Annual Meeting, and a conference to be held at the Wingspread Conference Center in Wisconsin in the spring of 1982 on curriculum and materials for secondary schools.

Specific resolutions

A significant way of dealing with vertical articulation between schools and colleges is for the colleges to accept one year of secondary-school foreign language as the equivalent of one quarter of college foreign language. In many cases students are thus placed in fourth-quarter German if they have completed three years in a secondary school program. This popular approach to the resolution of the problem is not without its own problems, because of the variability of secondary school programs that results from local school autonomy, a fact of life in this country. It is, however, an approach advocated as a highly recommended short-range solution to the problem (Grittner, 14).

Placement of students within a program by means of an achievement test is another way to handle articulation between secondary schools and colleges. Placement of students based on test results can also be used within programs when students move from school to school. Standardized tests are generally the means used. In this regard, each program must define its outcomes and construct tests that relate to them. Students can then be placed at the appropriate level. In many instances, standardized tests do not necessarily relate to the outcomes. Colleges may expect students to be prepared to use language in all language activities, but the placement test examines only grammar, vocabulary, and translation.

Both of these specific resolutions to vertical articulation may force students to feel that they may have accomplished little in their previous programs. If students are placed according to amount of prior study, and if, in fact, students achieved little in the previous program, they will find themselves in courses that are too difficult. Their suspicions of not having learned much will be confirmed; they will also be challenged, perhaps well beyond their knowledge. If students are tested for placement, as in the second case above, they will also be concerned about having learned little. Yet the truth of the matter may not be so; they will have been tested only on what they have not studied. Their behavior in both cases will show a desire to start over. (See Halff and Frisbee, 18.)

Curriculum-specific testing for placement is a third way of resolving the placement of students in college or university programs, specifically those with language requirements. The language department of the college defines the outcomes it expects of students who must pass the language requirement. From this definition, a specific test of proficiencies can be developed. In fact, proficiencies expected at the end of each semester or quarter should be reflected in the tests developed for these semesters or quarters. In this way, the college or university has proficiency tests for the program as a whole as well as for each semester or quarter. In addition, these same proficiency tests could be used as placement tests.

With a curriculum defined and with curriculum-specific tests developed to evaluate the learning of students in this curriculum, the college could communicate more meaningfully with secondary schools about its program. In fact, in developing the curriculum, the college could survey the curricula of its major clients in the immediate area, using the results of the survey in the development of the curriculum and in the tests as well.

New proposals for the resolution of the articulation problem

The previous attempts to resolve articulation problems will continue to be used until such time as new proposals have been implemented. Basically, the new proposals relate to 1) the statement of language proficiency outcomes, 2) the communication of expected language-proficiency outcomes between, among, and across schooling levels and disciplines, and 3) the development of instruments and/or procedures to evaluate the proficiencies. Johnson (21) discusses the need for such an approach to articulation so that college programs can build on the efforts of secondary school courses. She argues for a certificate of proficiency in business French, scientific Russian, or translation, a certificate that recognizes work done by the student in a particular area of language study. This idea is certainly on the right track, but it needs to be broadened in scope.

Delineation of Learner Outcomes

The "articulation jungle" will not be cleared until we, as a profession, carefully delineate the proficiencies we are expecting students to demonstrate, not in terms of levels or of time spent in class, but in terms of language proficiency and its development. What does it mean to be able to understand a native speaker in normal situations, at normal speed? What are the processes involved in understanding? How does language learning relate to those processes? How are the second language, the learning process, and the processes involved in understanding combined in a curriculum to develop listening comprehension? What minimum proficiencies contribute to the development of the larger proficiency of listening? How can these minimum competencies be stated? These same questions can be asked of the other language activities —speaking, reading, and writing.

Progress in the delineation of outcomes has been made in the past ten or so years through the work of the Council of Europe with the concept of the Threshold Level (van Ek, 45) as a stage in the development of oral proficiency for adults. This statement delineates very carefully the components of language functions needed for adults to operate in a second-language environment. It is a model of delineation based upon the identification of the needs of adults who are learning a foreign language (Richterich and Chancerel, 31). This progress is continuing; it needs adaptation, however, to the learning of languages in the school, college, and university environment in this country. It will also need expansion from oral language activities to written language activities. The delineation of the outcomes would probably fall into the following categories: language use (using language for various functions), knowledge about language (grammar, phonology, syntax, lexicon), culture (language as culture as well as historical, political, and social culture), and language education (how language is learned). These were the categories of outcomes discussed by a curriculum and materials group at the ACTFL-sponsored National Conference on Professional Priorities in November of 1980 (23).

Communication of learner outcomes

Once the adaptation has been made and the delineation of outcomes is complete, the resulting statement can be used by the profession with any level of schooling. It will serve as a communicative device. Schools will be able to designate which elements can be accomplished in their programs so that universities will know more precisely what proficiency development has taken place in the secondary schools. Students transferring from one ninth-grade language program to another could be more easily placed. Articulation with other subject areas could be accomplished because there would be a clear understanding of which elements of the discipline could be associated with the language program.

Proficiency outcomes having been delineated, the next step is the designation of alternative instructional strategies which could all be useful in the development of the proficiencies. The issue in this case will have to be the contribution of the strategies to the development of proficiencies, and not their use because of a teacher's personal preference. Materials will also have to be chosen to develop proficiencies within the four outcome categories. Their contribution would have to be carefully prepared by authors in relation to the same outcome categories.

Evaluation of learner outcomes

The most crucial aspect of the delineation of the development of proficiency outcomes is their evaluation. The delineation of proficiency outcomes will require a matching of the test, or testing procedure, to the stages of proficiency being developed. Tests in the language field, particularly the standardized tests, currently deal mostly with the parts and pieces of language. These tests may be useful in examining the "knowledge about language" outcomes category. The match-up of potential subcategories of oral proficiency outcomes with an oral proficiency evaluation procedure, the Foreign Service Institute Oral Proficiency Interview (Frith and Adams, 12), as accomplished in Jorstad (20), is the kind of relationship desired between outcomes and evaluation procedures. This kind of relationship is necessary to evaluate proficiencies with language activities other than speaking.

The results of such evaluation procedures, because they are linked to the development of language proficiency in different language activities, can communicate more precisely where the student is in the development of overall proficiency. Placement within any language program should thus become much easier.

Conclusion

As shown in this chapter, articulation has been resolved in different ways in different settings. The results of such articulation efforts are at best mixed, largely because the profession is not in agreement on several issues: 1) the outcomes of language study, 2) the importance of the consumers' needs, 3) the relationship of desired proficiencies, strategies, materials, and evaluation, and 4) the importance of teachers' influence, ego, and knowledge of the learning process in relation to the results of learning. The potential for the profession to think about articulation not as a product but as a process is exemplified in the new proposals to resolve the articulation problem. In this way, the problem is resolved at the same time as the general curriculum is developed. Professional agreement on outcomes and on evaluation procedures for those outcomes alone would provide almost unimaginable progress in dealing with language learning.

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